

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

CONTENTS

	PAGE
A PROJECTED PHILOSOPHY OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION . . . <i>Harold E. Stassen</i>	259
THE TVA PROGRAM FOR DEVELOPING PERSONNEL STAFF REPLACEMENTS <i>George F. Gant and Henry C. Hart</i>	265
THE PRESENTATION OF WAGE PROPOSALS FOR LEGISLA- TIVE REVIEW <i>Merrill J. Collett</i>	272
ORIENTATION PROGRAMS FOR NEW EMPLOYEES <i>William B. Dominick</i>	280
THE WARTIME PROGRAM OF THE NATIONAL CIVIL SERVICE REFORM LEAGUE <i>Helen C. Drummond</i>	288
THE USE OF marginally PUNCHED CARDS IN THE EX- AMINING PROCESS <i>Dorothy E. Piez and Louis P. Willemin, Jr.</i>	293
THE FIRST FEDERAL CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION: 1871-75 (PART III) <i>Lionel V. Murphy</i>	299
COURT DECISIONS	324
BOOK REVIEWS	330
ARTICLE ABSTRACTS	336

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THE CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY

THE Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada is an association of public agencies, officials, and private citizens engaged or interested in public personnel administration. The constituent public agencies of the Assembly are civil service commissions and boards, or personnel offices serving a particular governmental department or division. They serve national, state, and local governments of the United States, and Dominion, provincial, and local areas in Canada. The Assembly was organized in 1906 by officials and others actually engaged in civil service and other public personnel activities in order to provide mutual help in meeting common problems and to improve public personnel administration. A Headquarters Office has been established at 1313 East 60th Street in Chicago, Illinois, to serve as a clearinghouse for information on public personnel matters.

A Projected Philosophy of Public Administration

HAROLD E. STASSEN

I KNOW that we are all deeply conscious of the fact that a terrific challenge is being made to our whole free way of life. We recognize that the challenge of the Axis and its ideology is not simply a challenge of Axis armies and navies to the armies and navies of our country and the United Nations. It is not simply a challenge of military might versus military might; but in a very real sense, the challenge takes the form of total war. Total war means also a challenge between the productive means of the Axis nations and of the United Nations—between the systems of labor, the systems of management, and the systems of agriculture of the Axis nations, as opposed to those systems and rights of labor, management, and of agriculture in our free way of life. Total war also involves a challenge from the governments of the Axis nations to the governments of the democratic and United Nations. It presents a challenge of efficiency and effectiveness in doing a job by the methods of the governments of the nations opposing us, and those of America and her Allies.

No one needs speak of the great stakes in this challenge and in this struggle. We recognize their extreme significance. How important is it, then, that we gravely consider the importance of that challenge and its relation to every phase of our life, of our activity, as contrasted to those same phases

of life and of activity under the ideology of totalitarianism. We must make government under democracy more efficient, effective, and thorough than government is under the totalitarian systems, if we are to avoid paying an extra price in some other part of this conflict.

May I state parenthetically to you now that in my discussion with you this noon I will speak quite frankly and informally, giving you the viewpoints that I have, not in the sense that you should agree with those I express, but rather that I believe the very basis of the functioning of our system lies in frank presentation of viewpoints and in discussing and thinking them through. Out of this procedure comes the best answer that our people—indeed, our way of life—can give. Viewpoints I express, developing through my limited experience in government and in its activities, might themselves change as I go through new experiences, but if we are to contribute to progress, reasons and viewpoints should be plainly discussed as we proceed with a consideration of our problems.

DEMOCRATIC GOVERNMENT AND THE MERIT SYSTEM

IT IS my viewpoint that government—the science of government, the mechanics of government—in the democracies has not progressed as rapidly as has the science of industry, the science of transportation, the science of communication and, yes, even the science of warfare. We have not reached the point of having made the same progress in governmental procedures, in the mechanics

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of the effective leadership of the people under a democracy, that has been made in the fields of science. I think one of the reasons for this is that we have been prone to say that some of the inefficiencies and delays that we experience represent the price we pay for the freedom and the rights and liberties of our individual citizens. I think that in most instances it is a price we need not pay for the preservation of those rights and liberties. In fact, it frequently comes to the point where we could much better preserve the rights and liberties of our people if we could increase the efficiency and the effectiveness of governmental procedures and governmental action.

I believe and have believed that one of the keystones to effective and efficient government, and progress in the science of government, is the development of public personnel administration through civil service and merit system plans. I say that now. I said it to the entire people of this state five years ago. The people of this state believe in it and are holding firmly to it. We have reached the point where anyone, regardless of political viewpoint, starts out with the assumption that complete, thorough, civil service administration is the very basis on which we go forward.

I emphasize the importance of civil service not so much exclusively for its own results, but because I think that effective public personnel administration pays a greater dividend for what it then permits to be done in a democracy in terms of the efficient functioning of government. This dividend is even larger than its own great contribution through the ability of the employees secured through its procedures. Before civil service systems were established in a large number of our governments, and as the people endeavored through their legislative bodies to guard against the arbitrariness of officials and the avarice of the spoils system, there grew up in this country what might be called many-headed administrative departments. Very frequently there was to be found in administrative situations, three-

members boards, or commissions of five. One of the reasons that these were developed to perform administrative functions was a desire to protect the employees from the arbitrariness or wilfulness of a single administrative officer who might cause dislocation and inefficiency.

Thus we observed the tremendous development in government at all levels, of administrative powers residing, not in individuals, but in groups of three or five members serving staggered terms, with the occasional provision that members must represent different parties. We recognize, of course, the separate nature of the functions of those boards which are of the distinctly semi-legislative or quasi-judicial type, or where they are in the policy-making field. But it is my judgment that administrative boards cannot function with the speed, the efficiency, the directness, the clear-cut precision that is needed under modern conditions in a democracy. Consequently, I believe that effective civil service removes the conditions that to a great degree originally inspired this philosophy of many-headed administrative organizations and makes possible the complete safeguarding of the rights and liberties of individual people—the safeguarding of the employees, and through them the safeguarding of the people's rights. I believe that it is most important to have these people's rights fully safeguarded, and yet have clear cut lines of administrative responsibility with single-headed administrative directors.

I believe that the failure to make this correction in administrative procedures concurrently with the development of merit procedures has been one of the greatest causes of delays, inefficiency, slowness of action, uncertainties, conflicts and wavering policies of government in free countries. It stands out very sharply in contrast to other forms of government. But if we have civil service procedures, then we need not fear establishing clear lines of command for the sake of modern efficiency. I believe that the people of the country realize this and, when

it is presented to them, do recognize the importance of it.

THE NEED FOR PUBLIC UNDERSTANDING

OF COURSE, there might be some reluctance to accept some of these procedures, both in civil service and in the corollary improvements in administration, on the theory that, even if they are all right, the people would not be for them if they didn't understand them, and that you cannot on that basis build an effective political organization that can cause the administration which puts into effect steps of that kind to be continued in power by the people.

Here again, I think that many political leaders have lost sight of the advance of science that has given us the radio and other modern methods of communication with the people as a whole. The tremendous improvement in the rapidity with which the public press reaches the entire populace has removed the necessity for relying upon passing down procedures and information through political organizations, and has made possible the development, on a different basis, of public personnel administration. It means, of course, that those methods of communication with the people as a whole must be used, and used effectively, if we are to shift over to a definite, modern, efficient type of governmental administration. It means that the people must thoroughly understand proposals concerning civil service and other phases of public administration before such proposals are enacted, and not simply that we make an effort to sell the citizenry afterward.

I know that you will pardon a brief reference in that regard to the experience in this state. The Minnesota Civil Service Council, a federation of some eleven different organizations, worked together as a body interpreting to the people of this state, some four years ago, the importance of civil service, of improved administration, and all of its implications. This body, representing farm and labor organizations, public groups, Junior Chambers of Commerce, veterans

groups, P.T.A.'s, the League of Women Voters, and others, carried on an educational campaign among the people—an interpretive campaign that was apart from the campaigns of any of the political parties. The Civil Service Council endeavored to develop the idea of the merit system in terms that would be grasped by the public. Civil service was to become a "keystone of state administration" and contribute to public administration with centralized responsibilities and authorities.

On the basis of that element in the interpretation to the people, it was possible to go forward on the measures that we have instituted in this state. In observing the manner in which that issue was presented to the people, I am absolutely convinced that, if such measures are directly presented to our citizens frankly and plainly, they do have the good judgment and the intelligence to move forward in support of modern methods of public administration. I think that this incident takes on an unusual significance at this time in connection with the challenge of the war.

Along with the clear-cut lines of direction and single-headed administration of governmental activities there is, of course, the related necessity for the clear delineation of the responsibility and authority of different departments. In this connection, I should like to urge and recommend that you men and women in public personnel administration delegate to yourself an increased responsibility beyond your own field. In other words, in addition to the problems pertaining directly to the merit system, I hope that to an increasing degree, as I know many of you have already done, you will think through these problems of other phases of public administration. I hope that you will advise, recommend, suggest, and consult with other officials of government to effect the straightening out of governmental procedures and governmental lines of command. This to the end that government may be increasingly effective and that it may keep pace with the world—a need inherently

so important when considered with the challenge of this war.

THE PROBLEM OF MANPOWER

BEFORE this war is over, and I believe it will be a long one, we will see many millions more men of this country in uniform. We must begin now to anticipate the increasing problems that will be reflected in every one of our lives—the problems of manpower. When such problems once confront us they are very difficult to meet. It is only in the anticipation of manpower problems that we can do our most effective job of meeting them. Interpreting and applying the principles which we have been discussing, the nation's manpower problem today obviously needs single-headed direction and planning; it requires anticipation of the problems which the increased manpower demands will cause. In your discussions with public officials with whom you come in contact you will play a big part in the forming of public opinion necessary to bring about this very important development.

Looking into the days ahead to the terrific requirement of manpower by the armed services and the increased demands in war production, I believe that we must contemplate the necessity for having fewer employees in governmental positions. Smaller numbers of employees must be used in carrying on the functions of government. This means that we must plan now how that should be brought about—what activities can be curtailed and which employees can be smoothly and fairly shifted around to other positions in government connected with the actual direction and prosecution of the war, or effectively shifted to places in war industry where they are needed. This, in turn, means that conflict between departments should be eliminated so that manpower is not used wastefully and tragedy result from endeavors to iron out the conflict.

The relationships between governmental departments must be changed in other respects. For example, I think that we must

face the fact that many of the girls who are now running typewriters in the departments which have been functioning for years must soon be running typewriters in some of the new departments more closely related to the war effort, or running typewriters in some of the war plants. Those changes must be faced, so that rather than using time in trying to train new typists, we must make a greater supply of womanpower available for the direct prosecution of the war.

The conservation of manpower also means that we must approach the task of cutting down the number of forms and procedures which we use in government, that we must re-examine each procedure we go through and each form that must be made out, to see whether or not there is still a real necessity for that form. Perhaps a number of them can be combined so that we can simplify and speed up governmental procedures, using less manpower. We must convert to the use of more women in government and a greater utilization of the physically handicapped who cannot perform other functions in the war effort. We should not compete with the Army or Navy, nor with war industry or agriculture, but rather determine how far we can withdraw from the competition for manpower.

Of course, the meeting of this problem by anticipating and planning can, in my judgment, come only with single-headed manpower administration. The longer we delay in it the more we will find the copper mines decreasing production because manpower is slipping away into other activities, and the dairy farms decreasing production for the same reason. As time goes on we will find even more of these bottlenecks and lagging points in the total prosecution of the war.

UNIFICATION OF ADMINISTRATION AS A REMEDY

I HAVE entire confidence, however, that this country will solve its problems. Under the pressure growing from the awareness of the confusion and delays resulting from committees and boards, we will come

to an increasing degree to a situation in which, while maintaining for the people the basic right of choosing between alternatives in Presidents and in Governors and in other officials—the very basis for safeguarding against totalitarianism—we will have behind the efficient administration of the war program the tremendous power of public opinion. This, in turn, must be maintained through freedom of the press and the radio, with only the minimum military necessities of censorship.

I feel certain that the integrity of our democratic institutions will be assured in the presence of these three considerations: the power of the people at frequent intervals to choose between alternatives for their government; the protection of the rights of the employees, and therefore the rights of the people, through strong civil service procedures; and the continuation of the power of public opinion through the continuation of the freedom of the press and of the radio, and of public assembly. If these three bulwarks remain, I cannot believe that it is either necessary or desirable to have any handicap, such as commission administration, on administrative procedures in public agencies, either in war or under modern peacetime conditions, for modern conditions will not permit such a dissipation of authority and responsibility.

It probably was possible for two people to do a pretty good job of driving a horse. In fact in my younger days I have seen it done. Each one could take one of the reins and get along pretty well on a country road. But it would be pretty difficult for two people to share in the driving of an automobile by the actual handling of the controls on an equal basis, or for two people to handle the controls on an equal basis in a modern airplane. It is true that the pilot of an airplane frequently turns the controls over to the co-pilot, and also relies upon him for a great deal of information concerning what he is to do. At other times the whole progress of the airplane is turned over to the bombardier for him to control at the bombsight. Thus,

the control is shifted about to meet varying conditions, but it never rests on an equal basis. I think that the direction of government must have that same singleness of guidance, so that it is not necessary for three men to agree on an administrative measure, but rather that one man does have the power of decision, the responsibility for the decision, and even the right to make mistakes—because progress is never made without the right to make mistakes.

THE CHALLENGE OF THE POST-WAR ERA

OVERSHADOWING these challenges to public personnel administration in our way of government of free peoples, I believe, will come the challenge to government after we win this war. When that time comes America must take the leadership in working out the terms of the peace by the continued relationships between the free peoples of the world, and among the peoples of all nations. Here, then, will come the greatest challenge, the greatest opportunity, and the greatest responsibility for sound methods of governmental procedures and public administration, based upon a free system of government.

In those days after the war, if we are not then simply to lay the foundation for another war even more tragic than this one, we must develop the means for the association between the peoples of the nations of the world. Through the government of that association we must administer the great airways of the future, with their great national airports in the various continents of the world. We must administer the gateways to the seven seas. We must administer increasing trade between peoples of the world. We must administer the international police force, or world legion, so that we have a stabilized method of correcting conditions in countries without the violation of sovereignty involved when one nation reaches into the internal affairs of another. We can well pause to reflect upon the tremendous task of administration that the operation of services of that kind will in-

volve. Yet, considering the development of science, methods of transport, and of communication, can you see any other answer than developing some such structure?

If we attempt to solve administrative problems having a significance of this kind, or if we attempt the temporary administration of those nations on the other side of this conflict during the post-war period, on the basis of the spoils system in the respective nations of the United Nations, then there will be chaos. If we attempt to approach them on the basis of inefficient, ineffective public administration, then there will be a great tragedy. The post-war period will be the era of great hope for working out relations among people of the world. If the tragedy should occur, it will occur not because it is wrong to try to associate together the peoples of the world, but because the science of government will not be advanced sufficiently to rise to the challenge of the tremendous administrative responsibility that is involved.

On the other hand, we can now make long strides in public administration and

personnel administration, and if we project those developments into the administration of the affairs that involve all peoples of the world in the years after the war, then government—government of free people, developed by the initiative of free people—will have risen to its greatest height. It will permit us progressively to work out the problems that grow out of living together as a family of nations.

Being of those who have faith in that future, you men and women will in the days ahead make tremendous contributions individually and jointly through your associations and through all of the people in the public personnel field to finding the answer to the challenge that we will have before us in the days ahead. Yes, public administration, including public personnel administration, in the democracies can and *must* make a tremendous contribution to meeting the challenge that is involved in this war. You must help in meeting the challenge of the totalitarian form of government—a challenge to the very existence of the races of free men upon this globe.

The TVA Program for Developing Personnel Staff Replacements

GEORGE F. GANT AND HENRY C. HART

THE inclusion of personnel administrators in the list of twenty-two critical occupations recently compiled by the War Manpower Commission illustrates forcefully that competent personnel officers are badly needed in furthering the full use of manpower required to win the war. More than that, however, it serves to underscore heavily another fact—that the vacuum created by the scarcity of talent in the upper levels of the field eventually draws heavily on the sources of talent at the entrance level. Because of these forces, which are today being felt in virtually every public personnel agency, the accustomed sources of recruits, and the traditional pattern of “training by exposure,” no longer suffice. The one need to be augmented by additional recruitment sources, and the other requires the substitution of a program operating within the agency itself for the planned development of suitable staff replacements.

Such a program has been in operation in the personnel department of the Tennessee Valley Authority for five years. Some of its features are perhaps inapplicable in their entirety to the needs of another jurisdiction, for the nature of replacement needs depends largely on the composition of the particular personnel agency staff involved. Nevertheless, it is felt that the public personnel field as a whole shares enough in common to give more than local significance to the experi-

ence that has been gained in TVA with this approach to the solution of a knotty problem.

A brief description of the Authority's over-all personnel organization will give perspective to the details of the staff development plan which follow. In TVA, the personnel department is composed of three broad groups. Their approximate relative proportions are: clerical 64 per cent, personnel officer 22 per cent, and personnel specialist 14 per cent. In the clerical group are employment interviewers, raters of applications in the trades and labor occupations, and file and register clerks, as well as the usual office forces. The personnel officers are essentially “personnel generalists,” who, in close contact with the operating departments of the Authority, assist them to carry out personnel policies and provide them with personnel services according to plans and standards developed by the specialists. The personnel specialists are divided among the fields of recruitment and testing, classification, service rating, training, and personnel relations. Personnel officers and specialists are not distinguished as to professional rank or the need for personnel training—the difference is one of function. The personnel officer category may appear to be inapplicable to many public personnel agencies; but in some of these jurisdictions personnel officers are present within the operating departments and may be considered as within the career line of public personnel administration.

In developing its replacement program

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in these fields, the TVA personnel department has given primary attention to three processes: acquiring and maintaining good sources of new talent, maintaining high standards of selection and placement within the department, and detecting and developing an administrative point of view and judgment consonant with the TVA personnel program. It is in the light of these processes that the training program for personnel assistants¹ takes on significance. This program has not only supplied a well qualified group of new employees. It has served as a guide for the development of broader training activities in the department. Further, it has provided a yardstick against which to measure other recruitment and promotion standards and channels. Finally, as a cooperative program of postgraduate training, placement, and promotion, it provides a favorable point of contact with the universities and other sources of recruitment. Consequently the assistantship program is worth consideration in some detail.

PERSONNEL ASSISTANTSHIPS

IN THE summer of 1938, a graduate in public administration, one of the TVA's first personnel assistants, finished his year of work and training. His reports show that he performed responsible duties, even as a trainee. He made his best record in position-classification. Now, five years later, that assistant is a principal classification officer. He supervises six members of the professional classification staff, is executive secretary of the TVA service rating board, and has final approval of allocations through the \$2300 salary level. With his five years' experience, he has longer service in the division than anyone besides the chief and assistant chief, illustrating both the need for and value of a placement-training program.

The progress of this employee illustrates the objective which the personnel depart-

ment had in mind in 1937 when it set up the assistantship plan as a definite channel, but not an exclusive one, to recruit, train and place personnel officers and technicians. Through this channel a few of the most promising young university men could be employed and provided with a systematic way to learn personnel and administrative skills. In the process they could demonstrate their fitness for personnel administration.

Four assumptions were made in the establishment of the assistantship plan. They are:

1. Colleges are turning out excellent candidates for public personnel jobs. But like other college graduates, they profit by a period of closely supervised orientation which tests special interests and abilities and which spans the gap between theory and practice.

2. Personnel administration offers a career sufficiently specialized to set it off from the field of public administration as a whole.

3. The various personnel specialties cannot be practiced effectively without acquaintance with the broader principles of personnel administration and public management.

4. A process of recruiting for vacancies as they occur and letting the employees acquire qualifications for advancement on their own initiative is inadequate to fill personnel officer or specialist jobs in the personnel agency. Likewise, such a haphazard arrangement is not very attractive to the top five or ten per cent of trained college graduates.

The personnel assistant training plan was set up on a twelve month schedule. Four assistants in personnel administration were trained under it in 1937-38, and two in the following year. The period 1939-40 was an interval of stable employment in the personnel department; therefore the training program was suspended. In 1941, two assistants were selected, but the program was shortened to six months. Another assistant was brought in during the first half of 1942. The plan has been modified on each oc-

¹ The more usual term, "personnel apprentices," was replaced at the suggestion of the Federal Committee on Apprenticeship, which is attempting to clarify the meaning of "apprenticeship" as a joint labor-management sponsored program.

casation, but the general features have remained the same.

IMPORTANCE OF ORIGINAL SELECTION

NO SUBSTITUTE has been found for spending valuable time in the selection of personnel assistants. TVA relies heavily on the colleges both to draw qualified graduates into the register of candidates and also to supply well-informed judgments of their merit. The heads of public administration training in many universities are familiar with the TVA program and are personally interested in this plan of training for the public service. They know what the personnel department wants, and for that reason their assistance is especially valuable. There has been wide interest in the program. During the first summer (1937), 136 applications were accepted. Ninety young men and women competed in the recruitment just completed for personnel and public management assistants.

Candidates are sifted first by the employment division in its regular examination and certification process and reviewed by the department training committee which prepares the assistantship plan and generally oversees its execution. Analysis is facilitated by the candidate's written statement of evidence of his ability in each of the following areas: general scholarship, studies related to public personnel administration, administrative work, research, group leadership, oral and written expression, experience directly or indirectly related to personnel administration, initiative, originality, and judgment. The resulting list of candidates, usually narrowed to ten or twelve, is ranked by the director of personnel in consultation with the division chiefs. Offers are made in order of standing.

One of the distinctive features of the TVA assistantship is the relatively attractive salary level: \$1800 per year until 1942, and now \$2000 for the current program. These salaries are no higher, however, and now tend to be a grade lower, than those paid recruits of equivalent qualifications on production

work. Every job has a breaking-in period during which the employee is paid for his future worth. The additional length of this period in the case of assistants is offset by the increased versatility, productivity, and capacity for promotion which they develop. This allocation has an incidental advantage: it encourages division heads to assign trainees to responsible work of real training value rather than to assign them to routine tasks.

THE TRAINING SCHEDULE

ON REPORTING for work, the assistant has first to learn enough about the program of the TVA as a whole to understand the basic features of the personnel program and to know where to turn for further knowledge of the operating or line organization. In the orientation week, scheduled for this purpose, the trainee visits some of the Authority's projects, meets the director of personnel and the heads of the personnel divisions, obtains information concerning TVA's program, and reads TVA reports dealing with administrative concepts and methods.

The heart of the program is the assistant's work experience in the several activities of the department. Under the twelve months' schedule, his time was divided this way:

<i>Assignment</i>	<i>Time</i>
Orientation	1 week
Employment Division	8 weeks
Classification Division	8 weeks
Training Division	8 weeks
Personnel Relations Division	8 weeks
Field Personnel Office	8 weeks
Central Administrative Office	7 weeks
Annual Leave	4 weeks
<i>Total</i>	<i>52 weeks</i>

After interviewing the chief of the division and learning the physical and procedural layouts, the assistant goes to work. He begins by assisting the experienced officer in charge of his training in that division. Within two weeks he is usually performing duties which involve contacts with employees and supervisors. He is able to profit by the mistakes he makes in these contacts through discussions with the specialists who

observe his work. A week at the end of his tour of duty in a division may be devoted to a research assignment. Some of the titles of these projects are: "Graduate Training Plan for TVA Engineers;" "Visual Education Methods;" "History of Employee Representation in TVA;" "Validation of Oral Trade Questions;" "Classification of Public Relations Positions;" "Use of Consultants by TVA;" "Outline and Draft of Training Division Manual of Policy and Procedures;" and "Report of 1938 Wage Conference." These reports have specific value in relation to the department's productive work.

Work assignments of the assistant are interspersed with reading of a carefully selected bibliography. It contains selected material from professional literature in each field, but emphasizes case material out of TVA files. Reading is scheduled in relation to the current work and thinking of the trainee; much of it is done on his own time. The assistants are required to take a graduate course in public personnel administration concurrent with their work experience unless they have had equivalent academic work. The course is conducted by the University of Tennessee under a cooperative arrangement with TVA.

TRAINING proceeds on the basis of a written statement of the policies, schedules, assignments and reading lists of the program. This manual is prepared by the training committee of the personnel department. Within this general pattern a member of the training division is responsible for counseling with trainees, arranging orientation periods, securing service ratings, and performing other day-to-day functions connected with the training aspects of the program. In practice, this officer has become the adviser of the trainees (an important function, since the assistants change supervisors and working environments every month or two).

At the end of the period in each division, the assistant writes a report of his activities to the training committee. These reports

have been taken very seriously by the trainees; they serve as a record of the responsibilities the trainee has assumed and provide an opportunity to indicate his reaction to his experience in the divisions. The training committee has made most of its revisions of the training plan as a result of suggestions in these reports.

As the assistant completes each divisional assignment, his performance and potentiality are rated by the division chief. At the end of the training period these ratings are combined into a composite evaluation which is considered by each division chief with a view to placing the assistant in his staff. The division chiefs meet as a committee to discuss the best placement of the several assistants and to work out a solution if no immediate vacancy appears. In the latter event, assistants are continued for three months (six months under the original twelve month plan), and are given special assignments pending permanent placement. The training plan incorporates a statement that the assistants are expected to stay in TVA at least a year after they have finished their training, providing, of course, that they can be placed.

Nine assistants have been employed in the personnel department to date. Two of these, both in the initial group, were employed in other agencies before they were placed in permanent TVA jobs. Both now have responsible positions in other federal agencies. The other two members of the 1937-38 group are now principal classification officer and administrative assistant in the personnel department. Both of the 1938-39 assistants entered the Army as reserve officers this year, having reached positions, respectively, of classification officer and senior personnel officer at a TVA dam and steam-power project. The 1941 assistants are both at the \$2600 entrance grade, one as a front-line assistant personnel officer and the other as an assistant training officer. The most recent assistant, who completed her training on July 1, 1942, is now employed as a junior training officer.

THE progress of the assistants thus far shows that this method of selection and training has been successful in developing potential personnel technicians and personnel officers. Promotions have perhaps been more rapid than normal because the personnel department has doubled its staff to meet a work load multiplied four times by the war effort. It is of significance that all of the assistants have remained in the personnel department once they completed the assistantship program and were placed in production jobs.

The assistantship plan is worthwhile for its direct results in meeting replacement needs of the personnel staff. Its usefulness, however, extends beyond the nine staff members it has produced. Many of the department's in-service training activities draw upon one or another of the resources created by the plan. The process of developing the assistant training plan and keeping it up to date comprises a current analysis of the department's staff in terms of desirable qualifications and performance. It is job analysis projected on a departmental scale. In short, the assistantship program provides an occasion and a vehicle to develop other channels of recruitment, additional training programs, and the general standards for the placement and development of staff. To these we now turn.

SUPPLEMENTARY STAFFING SOURCES

THE personnel assistant register is the core of the Authority's recruitment for entrance positions in the personnel officer and personnel specialist groups. However, many recruits other than the assistants are drawn from the register. It serves as a measure of the comparative qualifications of candidates for promotion and recruits from other sources. Moreover, universities which participate in the recruitment of personnel assistants also refer men and women to the Authority on other occasions, frequently people ready for advanced responsibilities.

These universities include the southeastern schools which, like the Authority, are

interested in developing leadership for the public service of the Tennessee Valley area. Several of them have already assumed responsibilities for preparing students for public administration, including graduate training. Excellent candidates have been supplied by northern universities which have been developing centers for public administration training for more than a decade. These schools have high entrance standards; they have themselves performed the first step in selection. Graduates well trained in administration start work with a keen awareness of the administrative principles which color all aspects of TVA management. They come motivated to contribute to successful public management.

Another important source of personnel officers and technicians is the personnel in operating departments and in the clerical group of the personnel department. Relatively few employees (three of nine) have been transferred to personnel assistantships because that program is primarily a recruitment channel. There is, however, a steady progression from clerk or interviewer to personnel officer in the project personnel offices, where familiarity with procedures and project personnel counts heavily.

A few engineers and other professional employees are regularly absorbed into the personnel offices and the specialized personnel divisions from the operating organizations as well as from outside the agency. Personnel practices must largely be learned on the job and are often easier to learn than are the language and patterns of thought of unfamiliar professions for the personnel man. Engineers—civil, mechanical, chemical, and electrical—make up the largest professional body in the TVA; they are served by engineers in the personnel department, engineers who have been trained in personnel administration by the TVA.

To a lesser degree the same practice has been followed in connection with the less numerous professions represented in TVA employment. Along with many other personnel agencies, the Authority's personnel

department has found this to be an invaluable method of incorporating in the personnel program reference to the standards of the several professions and occupations. The personnel specialties—personnel relations, recruiting and testing, position-classification, employee training—require distinctive backgrounds of training and experience. These may be superimposed on the requirement of professional standing in the occupational field to which they are assigned.

WHAT is the distinguishing characteristic of the appointees drawn from these divergent sources? Perhaps, the common denominator is a point of view. It is not a pattern of personality traits in the ordinary sense; it is something in addition to basic intelligence, balance, and objectivity. It involves an interest in management as such and several of the abilities which mark the administrator: a sense of timing, alertness to organic relationships, and alertness to the need for disposing of a set of problems by a policy decision and to the applicability of policy in a specific situation. Nevertheless, there is need for technicians as well as administrators in the department. The personnel job in the Authority involves much staff work, service to the operating line, and review of managerial decisions. Primarily, the personnel officer or specialist in the TVA must be sensitive to the location of responsibility.

This point of view is a quality which is not always manifest in an interview or examination. It is demonstrated most clearly by the record of a candidate's activities, the surest clue to his priority of interests. For example, when engineers were needed in the department, men who had begun to explore the economic, administrative, or labor management aspects of the engineering profession were selected. A lawyer whose interest in public administration had led him to interrupt his practice and to complete graduate work in that field proved an exceptionally happy choice as personnel officer for the

management service departments. The most authoritative evaluations of such inclinations come from experienced men who know TVA requirements and who have watched the candidates develop.

TRAINING THROUGH PLACEMENT

The process of giving direction to the personnel program through the qualifications of the staff continues, and is intensified, after appointment. Here the personnel department has by no means taken full advantage of its resources. It is evident, none the less, how much of the success of staffing depends upon placement to develop broader competence. Part of the process is deliberate; part results naturally from the relative freedom of transfer within the department. Two case histories will illustrate this point:

I

A graduating civil engineer remained in college as assistant in the student personnel service. He became sufficiently interested in the field to take an M.A. degree in psychology. Attracted by this combination of interests, TVA employed him in 1935 as a field interviewer of labor. After 10 months, he was brought in to the personnel relations staff in Knoxville as a personnel research aide. There he was assigned to deal with employee indebtedness problems. He began to simplify this problem by establishing general policies and procedures through which cases could be disposed of in groups.

After he reduced this problem to the form of instructions which could be turned over to the personnel officers, he was transferred to the employment division. Assigned to recruit and rate engineering candidates, he began to analyze the existing procedures and to look for clearer statements of policy. In 1941, a new position was created under the chief personnel officer for liaison with the specialized divisions; he was nominated for the job by a specially appointed committee. Here his abilities for systematizing policy came into full play as he translated the standards of the personnel relations, classification, training and employment staffs into instructions for the personnel officers in the field. He knows both the field offices and two of the specialized divisions from inside, and he has the confidence of all segments of the department.

II

A young man who had had several years of experience as a chief clerk in the Quartermaster Corps was appointed junior classification investigator in 1935. He advanced steadily in the classification division, becoming a senior classification officer in charge of trades classification—a complex and relatively unexplored field.

In 1940, the chief of his division was loaned for 12 months to another agency. The difficult problem of replacement was handled as a training assignment. The senior classification officer and another staff member of the same rank were made acting chiefs for six months each. The experience was valuable, and the employee acquired the confidence of other division chiefs and the director of personnel in his administrative as well as technical skill. For two months after his superior returned, he was loaned to an operating department head to assist in solving a major organizational problem. This year, he was made assistant chief of the classification division; as such, he has full supervisory responsibility for the classification staff as well as many contacts with operating departments.

TRAINING through placement is supplemented by a number of other methods. A new personnel officer or technician reporting to work in Knoxville spends his first week in full-time orientation training. He is assigned a day in each specialized division. It is time enough at least to let him meet the division chief and the personnel with whom he will be dealing, see the physical layout, learn the scope of the department's work, and get acquainted with the principal instructional documents in each field. His orientation in the principles and programs of the department is continued in a series of weekly discussions.

An evening course in personnel administration is conducted by the University of Tennessee in Knoxville. A member of the University political science faculty conducts this course for personnel assistants and other members of the personnel department as well as for resident students. He is a part-time consultant to the training division of the personnel department and was formerly supervisor of public administration training

for about three-fourths of his time in TVA. This is part of a reciprocal arrangement through which the University extends its facilities to TVA employees and in turn widens its curriculum by using TVA specialists as part-time instructors, and by drawing on TVA materials for instruction. In addition, seminars have been conducted each year without connection with the University, using intra-TVA subjects as case material for exploration of administrative or personnel problems.

Conventional administrative devices also contribute to the sum total of training: staff meetings, monthly and annual progress reports designed for the staff, conferences of field and central office personnel, central review, and routing of material.

Objectives of the personnel agency determine the sources and methods of recruitment as well as the subtler requirements of attitudes and career objectives. Organizational objectives and the specialization of the various fields of personnel work shape the personnel assistant program. This program is a basic part of the structure of the whole recruitment and training system in the personnel department. An essential responsibility of personnel administration is conceived to be the development of broadly oriented, technically competent staff members. The responsibility has only partly been met. Experience has shown, however, that when staff members know that assignments are made with a view to their opportunities for development as well as day-to-day service, they respond with full and enthusiastic performance.

The Presentation of Wage Proposals for Legislative Review

MERRILL J. COLLETT

THE current keen interest in wages,¹ touched off by spiralling cost of living during 1941 and early 1942 and stimulated by economic dislocations arising from the war effort, increases in intensity with the imminence of budget enactments. Although it is not yet possible to determine precisely to what extent the recently established national program of pay control will affect public jurisdictions, it is reasonable to assume that accurate pay data will still be needed as a basis for making any pay adjustments that may be allowed.

In addition to wage complexities occasioned by increases in cost of living, officials are perplexed by the problem of securing competent personnel to cope with increased administrative loads while at the same time holding employees in the face of enticements from ordnance plants, ship-building yards, war industries, and other governmental agencies. As federal agencies seek desperately to satisfy unplanned and emergency personnel requirements by offering higher salaries to meet large scale rejections of employment, state and local officials are forced to place wages in the same category as the proverbial "hot potato." Wages that were adequate six months ago are now out-dated; at the same time, state and local sources of revenue shrink alarmingly.

¹ The terms "wages" and "salaries" are synonymous for the purposes of this article. It is difficult to see any but an accounting distinction when in many areas "wages" for Stationary Firemen are higher than "salaries" for Junior Civil Engineers and "wages" reported for Electricians average well over \$250 a month.

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THE PRINCIPLE OF LEGISLATIVE RESPONSIBILITY

LEGISLATIVE officials are acutely concerned with all of the above factors in considering wages and budgets for the ensuing fiscal year. This concern is a divided one due to the fact that legislative bodies have a dual nature—a split personality, as it were. On the one hand, they represent the electorate and on the other hand they authoritatively determine for these same citizens the amount of their contributions toward the cost of governmental services. In budget and salary matters the citizen generally turns to legislators for accountability. This is true whether wages are recommended by the personnel agency and adopted by the legislative body, adopted by the personnel agency and reviewed for approval or disapproval by the legislative body, or adopted by the personnel agency without review.

It is, therefore, incumbent upon the personnel agency to recognize the legislative stake in salary and budget matters by presenting wage recommendations for consideration in such a manner that the legislative body has a full knowledge of pertinent facts. Legislators are grateful for facts. Moreover, in our representative, democratic political order they are entitled to full information, properly classified.

It is undoubtedly true that a personnel agency will please employees by disregarding the lower third of salaries reported on a wage survey, re-tabulating the remainder, and announcing recommendations for sub-

stantial increases in salaries throughout the service. Also, it is true that a personnel agency legally empowered to fix salary scales can announce substantial decreases or increases throughout the service without prior discussions with budget or legislative groups. But acts such as these breed friction between personnel, budget, and legislative groups since the changes frequently are accompanied by attempts to shift responsibility. These acts disregard the fundamental relationship of wages to the operating budget. They tend to complicate further the problem of maintaining for the electorate the direct responsibility of its elected representatives.

Under representative government the legislative body is basically responsible for the fundamental wage policy, the question of the general wage level, because of its close relationship to administrative effectiveness and over-all financial conditions. It is the responsibility of the personnel agency to develop and maintain the internal consistency of a pay plan, and to make certain that the spread of pay scales properly reflects conditions surrounding the work. Since it develops pay recommendations, the personnel agency will also be concerned with factors controlling the general level of these recommendations. These factors include present pay scales, immediate and ultimate cost of adoption, relation of the proposed pay scales to wages for comparable positions in private industry and other governmental jurisdictions, availability of competent personnel at proposed pay levels, and relation of recommendations to the cost and standard of living in the community.

By virtue of its prior analysis of the essential data relating to these factors, the personnel agency is also in a position to interpret summary information and make constructive recommendations facilitating wage policy formulation. Sound legislative determination depends upon personnel agency delineation of all pertinent factors and accurate, and objective, summarization of possible desirable and undesirable effects of

decisions made. Wage recommendations and supporting data should be presented in such manner that the legislative body can use them as working references.

SOME ESSENTIAL POINTS OF INFORMATION

OF PRIMARY concern to legislative officials is the effect of wage recommendations on the financial condition of the jurisdiction. More specifically, legislators are anxious to know what possible effects wage recommendations will have on the tax structure. Therefore, wage recommendations should be supported by an analysis of their effect in terms of the fund structure, particularly the general fund, since the condition of this fund is reflected in tax rates. At the state level it is desirable to analyze effects not only on the general fund and the total of ear-marked funds, but also to segregate the ear-marked funds into those whose sources of revenue are within the state and those whose sources of revenue are federal grants-in-aid or other subsidies.

Likewise pertinent is the effect of wage recommendations upon departmental appropriations. The tenure of civil service agencies has, on occasion, been threatened as a result of charges by administrative officials that the civil service department raised payrolls. The known effect of these charges resulted, in at least one instance, in specific instructions that salary recommendations should not increase a single departmental budget. Though this factor will not tend to affect recommendations in established agencies, it is nevertheless of interest to legislative officials.

The net effect of policies embodied in the recommended rules for installing the pay plan represent a third point on which the legislature requires full information, for the provisions of these rules will materially influence the financial effects mentioned previously. Installation rules are concerned with whether wages above the maximum for their class shall be lowered to the maximum, whether wages below the minimum for their class shall be raised to the minimum, and

whether wages between steps shall be raised to the next higher step. Installation of wage recommendations presents most complex problems when undertaken in conjunction with a classification or re-classification survey, but possible effects should not be overlooked when merely revising wage levels. Yet wage recommendations are, on occasion, submitted to the appropriating body without mention of possible alternative methods of putting proposals into effect.

Consideration of installation effects will likely affect the general level of pay recommendations. For example, some jurisdictions, attempting to maintain services in the face of such irreconcilables as inflationary trends and statutory restrictions on the amount of budget increases, have granted needed increases and spread the resulting burden by freezing salaries between steps but requiring subsequent wage increases to be made to the next higher step.

A similar move is to adopt a pay plan providing for higher wage levels, but to withhold increases within the range for employees whose salaries are above a fixed base, such as \$250 a month. Still another procedure involves withholding salary increases to the new maximum where large groups of employees, such as firemen or policemen, already are at the previous maximum and the council has granted over-all increases to meet changes in cost of living. These are but a few illustrations of the latitude available in adopting formally equitable increases in general pay levels by considering installation mechanism.

One of the most perplexing problems of installing a general wage plan involves salaries above the maximum for a recommended range. Discussion of the pros and cons of lowering such salaries to the maximum, or variations of the action, is not within the scope of this article. However, the personnel agency should present concise summaries of the financial effect of reducing such salaries or permitting them to remain at the current rate, and to outline underlying concepts and probable attendant results of each policy.

Reduction of salaries to the maximum has been known to result in subsequent legislative reaction in cases where the legislature had previously delegated this authority to a committee of its own membership, nullifying the reduction except for salaries above a specified base. Too frequently general wage revisions are made without adequate attention to these details of administration which materially affect over-all financial conditions and the character of employee and public acceptance of the proposed revisions.

AN ANALYSIS of turnover will prove valuable in discussions with legislative officials on financial effects of the various methods of installing wage proposals, and in arriving at general conclusions regarding ultimate costs of the recommendations. The rate of turnover will affect the extent to which minima for salary ranges become maxima due to the tendency to grant raises within the range on the basis of seniority. Turnover data compiled at the present time are abnormal. Unfortunately, most jurisdictions lack adequate data over a period of years, but it may be possible to secure assistance in the form of trends established from the experience of other jurisdictions.

Information on the number of positions increased and decreased will also interest legislators, for it will indicate the number of employees favorably and adversely affected, and therefore the anticipated volume of complaints. If combined with an analysis of wage proposal effects by general pay levels, the information will carry more weight than mere interest. For example, a tabulation of the number of positions eligible for increases and decreases by \$50 levels will demonstrate the economic groups benefiting from recommendations. The analysis should be accompanied by brief explanatory comments. Material of this sort will prove valuable should the policy determining group demonstrate an interest in establishing a cut-off point below which positions above the maximum will not be reduced to the maximum for their class.

COST OF LIVING STUDIES

DATA on costs and standards of living represent another area of information that will prove an essential factor, particularly at the present time. Personnel agencies in jurisdictions large enough to be covered by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States Department of Labor have an accepted available source of reference for changes in the cost of living index and percentage changes in the cost of consumer commodities and services. Agencies in smaller jurisdictions may find that the state department of labor has helpful material. As an example, the Massachusetts Department of Labor publishes cost of living data for New England cities. Other state departments of labor have made studies of cost of living for specific purposes.

Other state agencies may also yield profitable data. In many states welfare departments make periodic cost of living studies in connection with establishing budgets for relief clients. Since these studies frequently include large population centers, correlation of the studies with returns from the Bureau of Labor Statistics for these larger areas will permit comparative analysis between cities and clear determination of trends. Private associations and social agencies also make studies of living costs in terms of standards of living, i.e., minimum subsistence, minimum comfort, etc.² In a few instances governmental agencies have made similar studies; in this field reports by the Works Projects Administration are most numerous, but they are now somewhat out of date.

The mere collection of data on the costs and standards of living will prove valueless without analysis for trends and for relation to budget and tax limitations. Moreover, unless the cost of living data are assembled to justify a specific plan of salary adjustments

developed in conjunction with the pay plan, use of this type of material will likely prove disappointing in its effect. Legislators appear to have much greater interest in budget effects and wage rates for comparable positions elsewhere.

COMPARABLE WAGE DATA

SINCE a governmental agency must secure personnel in the competitive labor market, legislators are interested in the relation of proposed pay scales to pay scales for comparable positions in private and other public employment in the vicinity, and in other public employment in localities generally used as a basis for comparison by special interest groups—business, union, or employee. Inasmuch as general factors to be considered in carrying on wage surveys have been discussed in a preceding number of *Public Personnel Review*,³ they will not be covered here. Suffice it to say, however, that the wage survey should yield information as to private pay scales, pay scales in other public agencies, and current rates agreed upon by labor unions.

In this connection, it should be mentioned that wage surveys conducted at the present time should be so planned that data from firms directly connected with the war effort can be shown separately from general wage returns. This will permit the legislative body to ascertain competition furnished by war labor industries and to determine the extent to which war industry pay levels deviate from the bulk of pay rates prevailing in the area.

In general, wage comparisons between classes in separate governmental units should be made by securing data for as many comparable classes as practicable to assure adequate sampling of the entire wage level. Collection of data for a single class or series, or a group of specialized classes, is suggested only when in these classes are known to focus the attentions of local pressure groups and the more comprehensive, service-wide in-

² Major private social agencies in the larger cities prepare similar budgets for relief clients. Also available are reports by public groups such as the Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics, University of California, Berkeley. "Quantity and Cost Budgets," 1937.

³ Ismar Baruch. "Surveying Prevailing Salary Rates," *Public Personnel Review*, April, 1942, pp. 86-99.

formation cannot be secured. Data should be secured from jurisdictions "comparable to it in size and in social and economic characteristics,"⁴ and which are used generally as a basis for comparison by local citizens.

Also of importance will be the results of surveys conducted by professional or specialized occupational groups, such as hospital associations, of wage rates paid within their memberships. The date of the surveys should be checked in light of recent developments. It may be that a resurvey by the personnel agency is not necessary. Wage material collected and analyzed by others should be tabulated separately from the material that has been collected directly by the personnel agency.

Of primary importance at this time will be wage rates paid for skilled trades classes. This information may be derived from three possible sources: (1) information reported from the general wage survey for skilled trades positions; (2) copies of wage agreements procured from union representatives; or (3) copies of wage agreements filed with the state department of labor.

If copies of wage agreements are filed in the state labor department or other state office, it will be unnecessary to contact individual unions for copies of wage agreements. Information thus secured will assure adequate representation of the entire range of salaries agreed upon by union representatives, rather than open the possibility of receiving from union agents copies of only the most favorable agreements. If it is impossible to secure copies of wage agreements from a central state office, it will be necessary to contact large building management or industrial concerns which carry skilled trades positions on an annual basis in order to secure rates for maintenance positions. Of importance in all contacts and in all survey questionnaires will be the stressing of year-round employment and the "maintenance" rather than "construction" character of positions.

⁴ *Ibid.* p. 93.

PRESENTATION OF DATA

CAREFULLY developed pay plans may be dismembered by legislative bodies because of faulty presentation. The developing agency may secure a superabundance of information and submit all, hoping that its sheer mass and weight will assure positive action. Or the personnel agency, having a penchant for statistics, may irritate budget or legislative officials with a formidable array of charts, graphs, and other means of graphic presentation. Or perhaps the salary plan becomes a piece-meal affair as the presenting agency fails to control discussion.

Positive action on wage recommendations requires prior sifting of data and a planned presentation: The legislative body should be given only a concise summary of pertinent information, but detailed supporting schedules should be prepared and held in readiness should discussion of wage proposals result in a request for further details. A columnar tabulation by class, listed schematically and showing the number of positions in the class, present wage scales, summary results of wage surveys, proposed wage scales, and budget effects, will prove to be a basic working summary. After general introductory remarks and presentation of over-all budget and general fiscal effects, discussion will center on material contained within this tabulation.

Wage survey material from private industry should be segregated into returns from industries directly connected with war production and those not so related. If the situation warrants, comparisons with other public employment may be separated into a summary total and a separate listing of pay scales of the jurisdiction most frequently used as a basis for comparison.

Detailed tabulations of private wage survey data may be arranged, as warranted by the scope of the survey and size of the jurisdiction, by size and character of firms and, if at the state level, geographical area represented. Areas shown should coincide with areas in which large groups of state employ-

ees are congregated, such as state institutions and highway district offices. Analysis by size of firms permits critical evaluation of material in terms of firms having employment requirements similar to those of the governmental jurisdiction. Analysis by character of firms permits evaluation of returns for specific classes in terms of the type of industry or occupation represented by each of the various firms in order to ascertain rates paid in firms or establishments most commonly accepted as representing the classes analyzed. These groupings, together with the separation of war and non-war industries, permit a considered weighting of total wage returns by the legislative body.

ADDITIONAL summary tabulations should be restricted to these: analyses of fund effects; departmental pay roll effects; immediate installation effects of wage proposals in terms of reducing or not reducing positions above the maximum for the class, giving increases within the range to positions between steps, and increasing positions below the minimum to the minimum for the class; a listing by pay intervals of \$50, showing the number of positions increased or reduced; and a brief analysis of turnover and of trends in cost of living. Consolidations may be effected in the first three tabulations mentioned.

Not all of these summaries are necessary in every situation. It would be unwise to present each of them to the legislative body at the beginning of wage plan presentation and expect anything but confusion. The summaries of fund and departmental pay-roll effects, in terms of installation costs, should be available for distribution, but only after analysis of class relationships as indicated by a listing of classes under pay levels in which their ranges place them and the over-all columnar summary first mentioned in this section.

Before discussing procedures for considering wage proposals it should be pointed out that the tabulations and summaries listed are readily developed if wage returns and budget

analysis have been coded for mechanical tabulation. In small jurisdictions this is usually not feasible. However, the restricted summary material that is likewise necessary can be developed by hand tabulation of wage returns, and a satisfactory analysis of budget effects can be made by using an 8½x11" sheet of paper for each class on which is listed vertically all salaries paid for positions in the class and horizontally the departments in which they are found. A simple code may be developed for indicating funds from which positions are paid. Work sheets of this nature will make possible satisfactory speed in computing financial effects of proposals, and of revisions of proposals, by adding positions below and above salary minima and maxima and totalling monetary differences.

ON OCCASION wage recommendations have been prepared with much secrecy, after which they are flashed before employees and administrative officials with only brief formal notice, then jealously guarded through a formal hearing at which there is much generalization and little factual information, and finally are submitted to the legislative body for adoption after changes may have been made in star chamber sessions. The legislative body has not been represented at the hearing, does not know factors discussed during initial development, and therefore is forced to act without basic information which the personnel agency has been compiling over a period of time. It therefore holds hearings at which the same generalities are re-discussed, and then, still without adequate knowledge of fundamental factors, adopts or revises the pay recommendations. Subsequently, the legislative body continues to hear disgruntled comment without ever having known the full facts concerning a given situation.

It is suggested that satisfactory consideration of wage recommendations can be made by the legislative body only if it has been taken into full and complete confidence at

all stages of wage plan development or revision. If the wage plan is being developed in conjunction with a classification plan, representatives of the legislative body and the chief executive should be informed of the purposes of the classification plan, and should be kept posted on work progress so they will have a clear and accurate picture of the fundamental characteristics of the classes for which wage scales will later be developed. A classification plan is not sacrosanct; nor is it the sole property of the personnel agency. Attempts to regard it as such savor of defense mechanism for an inferior product. A full and complete discussion of the plan and its attendant problems with the chief executive and key legislative officials may result in questions which might not otherwise arise, but it likewise will result in classification and, ultimately, wage plans which will tend more satisfactorily to meet the operating needs of the jurisdiction.

If the wage plan is developed or revised separately, it will be necessary to introduce early in legislative consideration the basic factors of wage plan development: the fundamental inter-relationship existing between classes in accordance with the relative difficulty, importance, and responsibility of the duties performed, qualifications required for employment, physical working conditions and unusual hazards, extent to which production is measurable, and extent to which there is opportunity for promotion from the class. Early and tactful introduction of these factors and subsequent re-statement throughout the process of wage plan consideration will do much to decrease attempts to alter ranges for individual classes and to increase legislative understanding not only of the wage plan but of the classification plan upon which it is built.

SUGGESTED PRESENTATION PROCEDURE

TO PROVIDE a concrete approach to the problem of achieving a proper perspective for the pay plan it is suggested that the procedural sequence in legislative consideration be as follows:

1. A summary presentation of the wage plan by prior clearance with the chief executive and key legislative officials. This presentation should be in the nature of acquainting officials with the specific problems involved in the wage plan development, proposed working organization for the pay plan, and over-all effects of proposed pay scales. If the officials are so disposed, it will be desirable to make a detailed review of recommendations by pay levels, indicating class groupings within such levels. At this time is ascertained the specific attitude of responsible officials toward pay increases or decreases, and pay scales are related to tax or other financial limitations, if they exist. Many municipalities, for example, are prohibited by state law from increasing their operating budgets more than a fixed amount during any one budget period.

2. Distribution of the recommended pay scales to administrative officials for review and comment. Following conferences it is possible that slight revisions may be made to eliminate obvious shortcomings.

3. Public distribution of proposed pay scales, and arrangement of conferences with employees and with other interested groups such as outside labor unions and business associations. At these conferences, which should be presided over by a representative of the personnel or recommending agency, it is desirable to have present a member of the legislative body and in addition, preferably, a representative of the budget agency. If these cannot be present, the recommending agency should prepare an agenda of the meeting showing the individuals who appear, their affiliations, and their comments in support of requests for revision.

4. Analysis of the requests submitted at the conference and written reasons for granting or refusing the request. This process will furnish the policy-determining group with full information as to original recommendations, the actions of interested groups, and the considered judgment of the recommending agency.

THE PRESENTATION OF WAGE PROPOSALS

279

5. Final clearance of recommendations with the chief executive and legislative officials, or with legislative officials only, depending upon the law under which the agency is working. At this clearance session, the data originally submitted in the preliminary session described in the first of the foregoing enumerated steps should be again submitted, together with the written review of conferences. With this information the policy-determining body will be in a position to make an intelligent determination regarding the proposed wage scales in the light of the financial condition of the jurisdiction and the fundamental policy of the legislative group regarding general pay levels.

CONCLUSION

VARIATIONS in the procedure outlined above are necessary to meet legal requirements and general governmental *mores*

of individual communities or agencies. However, more satisfactory relationships will exist between the personnel, budget, and legislative bodies, and therefore more satisfactory wage plans result if these points are constantly borne in mind: that wage recommendations have a critical relationship to departmental budgets, fund conditions, and tax limitations; that the wage plan should maintain, not destroy, the fundamental inter-relationship of classes in the classification plan upon which wages are built; that frank discussion of classification and wage policies and problems with the chief executive and legislative officials at periodic intervals during the process will result in clearer understanding of the problems and more satisfactory solutions; and that all pertinent information should be made available to the policy-determining group before final consideration of wage recommendations.

Orientation Programs for New Employees¹

WILLIAM B. DOMINICK

THE problem of providing orientation for a mounting number of new employees has assumed impressive proportions for the planners of personnel programs at all levels of governmental jurisdiction, federal, state, and local. The personnel officer is aware that many of the vacancies which statistics show have been filled may again require filling within a few months, and that many of the replacements which have been made with great effort were caused by the resignation of discouraged or dissatisfied employees. Unless the personnel officer is reconciled to the dismal prospect of trying to fill and refill such positions in a steadily tightening labor market, a means must be found for reducing this needless waste of manpower. One such means is a planned program of orientation training.

Much of what follows deals primarily with the federal service and with the attack which has been made there on the problem of orienting new employees. However, the problem is not peculiar to the federal service alone, for other governmental jurisdictions are sharing in the current mobility of personnel. Since the underlying factors are similar in nature, it is quite possible that the programs here described, and the objectives and principles of orientation training brought out in the article, can be adapted effectively to the needs of states and cities.

¹ Prepared with the assistance of the staff of the Division of Training of the United States Civil Service Commission.

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THE NEED FOR ORIENTATION TRAINING

NEW employees are being brought into the civilian federal service today in unparalleled numbers. They are coming from every section of the country and from all walks of life. The age range is broader than ever before, including both older and younger groups. Some are entering their first jobs; others are experienced in private business or the professions, but new to the public service. Some who have worked for the government in the past are now returning; and others are transferring from one agency to another. Among these are many who are new to the community, and to them employment means a change in accustomed habits of living.

The majority of these persons are recruited to fill new positions in the war agencies. A considerable number, however, are employed to fill vacancies created by the draft, by resignations of persons who leave to enter private industry or transfer to other federal agencies, and by the failure of employees to become oriented in their agencies and to make satisfactory adjustments to living conditions.

The cost entailed in replacing experienced employees who voluntarily resign on account of failure to adjust themselves satisfactorily to their jobs and to the community is a burden to the federal service. Administrative officials and personnel officers may very well devote considerable thought and effort to developing and maintaining employees' satisfaction with their agencies, their jobs, and the new community in order

to minimize the cost of personnel turnover and the retardation of the war program.

All new employees have a natural desire to be doing something that will be of service to their country. They want to know how their jobs contribute to the objective of the unit in which they work, how their unit contributes to the success of the agency, and how the agency contributes to winning the war. They feel a need for an understanding of the agency's work program and the organization by means of which they work cooperatively toward a common goal. The desire of employees for this information offers the agency an opportunity to take the initial step toward improving employee performance by helping them to make a satisfactory beginning on the jobs for which they are responsible. Well-planned orientation programs can do much to ease the strain and lessen the confusion and uncertainty that the new employee faces when accepting a position in the federal service.

IN THE federal service the terms "orientation" and "induction" are used by different persons with different connotations. In order to clarify these terms, the following definitions are given: "Orientation" training is that type of training given the new employee to acquaint him with the purposes and functions of the organization he serves and to afford him a knowledge of the relationships of his job to those objectives and functions. "Induction" training is that type of training given the new employee to break him in on a new job and to teach him the duties which he is to perform. The purpose of the latter is to adapt previously acquired skills and knowledge to the specific requirements of the job and to provide new skills, knowledge, habits, and attitudes when required.

Induction training is usually given by the employee's supervisor or an experienced employee in the unit to which the employee is assigned. Orientation training, on the other hand, is generally conducted

by a member of a staff unit, such as the personnel division or the training organization. Orientation training will be most effective when there is close cooperation between staff and line officials in its planning and presentation, so that a well-rounded and sufficiently detailed picture will be drawn for new employees and they will readily see how their jobs contribute to the progress of the agency.

OBJECTIVES OF AN ORIENTATION PROGRAM

IN PLANNING an orientation program the objectives should be clearly set forth in order that the most effective results will be obtained. Some of the objectives are:

1. To give the employee an understanding of the agency's policies, objectives, organizational structure, and functions so that he may become a useful and productive member of the organization in the shortest possible time.
2. To show the employee the relationship of his agency to other federal agencies and how its functions are integrated with the total program of the federal government.
3. To introduce the employee to economic and social background in which the agency functions and acquaint him with the philosophy on which the law establishing his agency was based and with the problems with which the agency deals so that he may have an intelligent appreciation of the work he is to do.
4. To give the employee information about the principal activities of the working unit of which he is a part so that he can see the relation of his job to the total work program of the agency and the effect of his performance on the progress of the organization.
5. To give the employee an understanding of his status and responsibilities so that he will adapt himself readily to the human relationships in his work and to the established procedures and regulations of the agency.

6. To acquaint the employee with those facilities and services within and without his agency which will contribute to his well-being and development.

If the foregoing objectives are attained, the new employee should make a satisfactory beginning on the job for which he is responsible and reach effective production more easily and quickly than would otherwise be the case. Better cooperation between employees within the various parts of the agency and more effective coordination of activities will result. Loss of time and conflicts due to misunderstandings about such matters as lines of authority and responsibility, agency policies, and regulations, will be reduced. A clearer appreciation of the urgency of the war program will stimulate the employee to put forth greater effort on his job. Employee understanding of the agency's objectives, policies, and functions will aid in the development of effective public relations. Employee morale will be improved and a loyal, cooperative working force developed.

Recognition of the advantages of orientation training does not imply that all new employees should be given the same information by the same methods over the same period of time. For this type of training, as for any other, careful analysis of the needs of the group is necessary. The education and experience of the individuals in the group will determine the method and content of training to be given. The type of program which would be of particular value to the economist or business specialist may not be the type which would be of greatest usefulness to the messenger or guard. Employees new to the federal service or to the community will need information different from that needed by employees who are familiar with the government service and the community in which they are working. Methods of conducting an orientation program which may be used successfully for one group may be ineffective when used with a different

group. The length of time required for the program will vary according to the size of the group, background of the personnel, the nature of the jobs to which the employees are being assigned, and possibly other factors as well.

ORIENTATION MATERIALS AND AIDS

THE textual materials used by federal agencies in their orientation programs show considerable variation. As a basic training aid, a number of the departments and independent establishments make use of an employee handbook which usually includes information on institutional facts, provisions of employment, and employee activities and services; whereas others give new employees miscellaneous printed material such as annual reports, informational circulars, leave regulations, and copies of office memoranda.² Very often textual material is supplemented by the use of organization charts, photographs of executives, floor plans of the buildings, and maps showing the location of field offices.

The war effort of the government and the significance of the agency's work therein can be shown by the use of films and film slides. These, together with still pictures of various phases of the agency's work program, will help the employee visualize what is being accomplished. Some agencies use exhibits for this purpose and others have more or less permanent museums where panoramas, dioramas, and other visual aids are effectively presented. Where possible a tour of inspection of the physical layout of the agency will assist the new employee to visualize the exact relationship of his department to other organizational units. The selection and appropriate use of these materials and aids for an orientation program will depend upon those fundamental factors already discussed, such as the character of the group, the types of positions to be filled, time available for the program, and related factors.

² For a discussion of the use of employee handbooks, see the writer's article, "The Employee Handbook: A Training Aid," *Personnel Administration*, May, 1942.

COURSE CONTENT.

A STUDY of the orientation programs of several federal agencies indicates that there is general agreement that the following subjects be included in programs conducted on the agency or department level:

1. The objectives and purposes of the agency.
2. The background of the agency.
3. Structure and functions of the agency.
4. The administrative relationships of the agency, with particular reference to intra-agency and inter-agency relationships.
5. Personnel policies and procedures of the agency.
6. Federal civil service procedures and policies.
7. The interest of the agency in the development of its personnel.
8. The established processes of administration and supervision, including (a) the lines of authority and responsibility; and (b) the importance of working through channels.
9. Information about the agency's facilities and how employees may use them.
10. The facilities of the community.

These are subjects which are general in character and of interest to all employees, regardless of their location in the organization. The topics receive varying degrees of emphasis in the programs of the different agencies depending on the objectives, purposes, and functions of the agency. For example, orientation programs conducted at the bureau or division level are more specialized in respect to the functions and operations of the bureau or division.

SOME SPECIFIC PROGRAMS

THE following reports of orientation now being carried on in a few of the government agencies will give specific examples of how variously the subject may be treated.

The Department of State has developed a three-fold program of orienting new employees in Washington who receive \$2,000 per annum or less. The new employee, upon

reporting for duty, is interviewed by the Placement Officer. During the interview, an endeavor is made to elicit information from the employee with respect to any immediate personal problems which he may have, such as housing accommodations, or financial status until the first pay period. The newcomer is referred to the Personnel Relations Section for assistance in solving any such problems disclosed by the interview.

An orientation meeting is held one morning each week for employees who have entered on duty during the preceding week. The Director of Personnel, who presides over the meeting, gives a brief description of the organizational structure of the Department of State and of the specific functions of the different bureaus. He also discusses the responsibility of each employee to his particular office and to the Department. The Chief of the Personnel Relations Section then discusses employment regulations, the facilities of the Personnel Relations Section as they relate to employees, employee organizations, and recreational and educational facilities in Washington. The employee handbook of the Department, guide maps of the city, and mimeographed material on community facilities are distributed to the group.

About two weeks after the orientation meeting, the Chief of the Personnel Relations Section calls upon the employee's supervisor and discusses the employee's adjustment to his work and to his surroundings. If it is revealed that the employee is experiencing any difficulties, the Chief of the Personnel Relations Section holds a consultation with him and endeavors to help him make a better adjustment. Throughout the orientation period, a definite attempt is made to keep the entire program on an informal and personal basis.

The Civilian Personnel Division of the Office of the Secretary of War conducts a department-wide orientation program for all newly appointed clerks, typists, stenographers, and messengers receiving \$1620 or less. This is an "Advice and Information

Program," which includes personal counseling and information valuable to the new employee on his job.

On the first day of duty the employee reports to the central induction office, where he completes all necessary personnel papers and forms, is fingerprinted and assigned to one of the bureaus of the Department. On the morning of the second day of duty, the employee receives a progress card which he filled in the previous day and on which have been scheduled for him an appointment with an employee counselor and a time for taking a clerical aptitude test. The "Advice and Information Program" then begins. The new employees are first welcomed to the War Department and given a complete explanation of the program. Assistance is given each employee in scheduling his program for the orientation period.

Each employee receives a copy of a reference manual, "Introduction to Employment in the War Department," and three sets of problems based on subject matter in that manual. The employee reads the section in the manual on War Department organization and insignia, answers the problems relating to that section, and then takes part in a discussion on the subject, lasting for about an hour.

At some time during the day, the employee reports to his counselor for an interview, during which his personal problems regarding housing, transportation facilities, recreation, pay periods, and similar matters are discussed. During the afternoon, tests in typing and stenography are given to typists, stenographers, and others who wish to take them. In connection with the tests, employees are instructed in the latest techniques for improvement of typing and stenographic skills.

On the third day the employee participates in discussions of employee privileges and responsibilities and of War Department correspondence, having first read the manual and answered the problems on those subjects. The employee has the opportunity during the day to seek assistance from his

counselor in solving personal problems of adjustment.

On the morning of the fourth day, the employee reports to the bureau to which he has been previously assigned. A record card for each individual which shows his progress during the "Advice and Information Program," including the scores on the tests taken and remarks of the counselor about the employee, is transmitted to the bureau for the guidance of the supervisor in placing the employee on the job.

The Division of Personnel Supervision and Management of the Department of the Navy conducts an orientation program which is known as the "Indoctrination Training Course" for all new civilian employees in Washington who are assigned to the departmental service. Professional and technical employees of all grades and services, as well as clerical employees, participate in the course for it has been found that the need of the professional employee for orientation training is as great as that of the clerical employee. Since December 1940, some 10,000 employees have received this training, which is given in six one-hour sessions held over a period of one week.

Upon reporting for duty, each new employee is given a copy of the Department's handbook, "Information for Employees," and a memorandum from the Director of Personnel welcoming him to the Department, telling him about the Indoctrination Program, and assigning a time for him to report for the classes. Each new employee is assigned to a class which begins on the Monday morning following his entrance on duty and which meets on consecutive days for the remainder of the week.

The classes are conducted on an informal basis. Discussions are based on the employee handbook, the instructor acting as discussion leader and answering questions which the newcomers raise. On the first day, guide maps of the city are distributed and discussed briefly. Such general matters as building passes, fire regulations, the dispensary, and personal mail, are commented on. Em-

ployee organizations are explained, and a discussion of the organization of the Department of the Navy, which covers the history of the Navy and the organization of the Fleet, is begun. The program of the first day is concluded with a showing of the film, "Ships of the U. S. Navy." The instructor makes no definite study assignments, but outlines the program for the week and calls attention to the sections of the handbook which should be read.

On the second day, the discussion of the organization of the Department is continued and naval policy and responsibilities of the major subdivisions of the Department are covered. On the third day, the discussion covers the United States Marine Corps, the U. S. Coast Guard, and the shore establishments of the Navy. A film, "Soldiers of the Sea," is shown.

Employment regulations with respect to appointment, classification of positions, efficiency ratings, leave, transfer, promotion, etc., are discussed on the fourth day, and the employees see a motion picture, "Men of the U. S. Navy." A pamphlet, "Telephoning for Uncle Sam," is also distributed.

The discussion of employment regulations is continued on the fifth day and such matters as retirement, compensation for injury, travel, and employee activities are explained. The film, "Sailors with Wings," is shown. On the sixth day, rules for the use of the telephone are discussed and the group is given the opportunity to raise questions about the material which has been covered. During this session, employees are requested to fill out a questionnaire on which they are given the opportunity to offer comments and suggestions on the program. Suggestions received have been very helpful to the discussion leaders in developing the orientation program. The motion picture, "Eyes of the Fleet," completes the program.

The United States Civil Service Commission conducts a 10-hour orientation program for all new employees receiving \$1620 per annum or less. The program is carried on over a period of two weeks in one-hour ses-

sions. Employees enter the program after at least one month of service in the Commission.

The instruction is given to employees in groups of sixty to seventy-five persons. On the first day of the program the instructor gives each employee copies of two booklets, "Federal Employment under the Merit System," and "Glossary of Federal Civil Service Terms" for study and reference during the program.

The first five sessions are devoted to lectures and discussions about the Civil Service Commission: its historical background; the application of the Civil Service Act; the work of the Commission including the examination procedure, the maintenance of adequate lists of qualified persons or departmental registers, the certification procedure, and other functions; the organization of the Commission and the functions of the various divisions; the field service; and key personnel.

Personnel procedures and regulations affecting employees are studied during the first three sessions of the second week. At the ninth session, the group receives training in the proper use of the telephone. At the tenth session, the employees are given a one-hour written exercise covering the lectures and the reference material. Each employee receives his grade, and copies are transmitted to his supervisor and placed in his personnel folder.

The Office for Emergency Management conducts an orientation program for all newly appointed stenographers, typists, and clerical employees receiving \$1620 or less who have been recruited for the various constituent agencies. When the new clerical employee reports, he participates in a one-hour interview, during which he is urged to raise questions about his personal needs, such as living quarters, transportation facilities, pay periods, etc. Every attempt is made to find answers to these questions so that the new employee may make a satisfactory personal adjustment to the community.

During this session each new employee

receives a copy of the booklet, "Information for New Employees," which describes the city of Washington and various community facilities and employee services. At the same time the employee receives a copy of "A Handbook for Employees," which gives information about such matters as provisions of employment, office conduct, employee activities and retirement, and a four-page leaflet which includes an organization chart and a description of the current functions performed by the constituent agencies of OEM.

After the one-hour introduction period, stenographers and typists report to the central training pool where they remain for a week. Information relating to the background, organization structure, and functions of OEM is interspersed throughout this period. The new employees are given a general test as well as tests in typing, English usage, shorthand, copying from rough draft, and clerical checking. Time is given to skill development, and an effort is made to develop a good office work pattern. Considerable attention is given to methods and procedures for setting up and preparing correspondence, miscellaneous memoranda, and prescribed forms. Over 2,000 stenographers and typists have spent a week in the training pool.

Upon being assigned to a job in one of the OEM agencies, the new employee usually is given a brief orientation program with particular reference to the background, organization, and functions and procedures of the specific agency. In some of the constituent agencies, a follow-up is made of each new employee to determine the need for further training, and if necessary remedial training in typing and stenography is given. The nature and the length of the training vary according to the needs of the individual.

The orientation program described has had to be adjusted to the needs of the constituent agencies and of the personnel. All new employees do not necessarily participate in the program to the same degree and in the same manner.

The War Production Board has for several months been conducting orientation programs for new professional and technical employees receiving \$2,000 or more per annum, as well as for clerical employees receiving less than that amount.

The program for the professional and technical personnel is of three and one half hours' duration and is repeated twice weekly so that no new employee is on duty for more than two or three days before he receives this training. Although the course is voluntary, the program has been so well received throughout the organization that every new employee attends a session and his supervisor encourages him to do so.

The subjects presented are planned to give the new employee, who usually has had experience in private business, a general knowledge of the organization and operations of the War Production Board and of its various parts and the work of its associated agencies. It also includes the basic principles of the Priorities System and its effect upon the economic operations of the country. An effort is made to give the new employee an understanding of the basic purposes and operations of the Allocation Classification System. All subjects are discussed in outline form, for it has been found that, with an understanding of the basic framework and operations, the employees can easily fill in the details by work assignments and supplementary reading.

The discussion leader makes extensive use of charts and illustrations throughout the program and gives the employees samples of the three most common forms which he will be called to use and explains them. In order to change the pace, a motion picture, "Tanks," is shown after the first half of the program.

Each employee is required to take extensive notes on the material, since so much of it is given in lectures and the details cannot be absorbed during the session. At the end of the session each employee is asked to answer ten questions covering the major subjects presented. This brief test is of the

multiple choice type and four possible answers are given for each question.

A two-day orientation program for employees who receive less than \$2,000 is a simplified version of that conducted for the higher paid employees and in addition includes information about the community, office services and employees' facilities. Training in office practices and tours of various divisions are also part of the program.

ALTHOUGH it was only possible within the limits of this article to present a few of the orientation programs that are being carried on in the federal service, certain interesting variations are apparent. Only two of the programs described enroll professional and technical employees and in only one of these are all employees, regardless of position level, given the same orientation training. Printed material is distributed in every instance and information in the employee handbook is generally used as a starting point for discussion. Two programs include training in telephone techniques; two give particular emphasis to testing individual employees before placement; and one devotes attention to specific training before giving the employee a definite assignment.

One agency defers its orientation training until the new employee has had an opportunity to become adjusted to his particular section and to learn something of his work. The Navy's use of visual aids by including a film showing at each meeting is interesting,

as is its practice of obtaining an evaluation of the course from the participants.

Recognition of the importance of the employee's adjustment to a new environment is given in the majority of instances through the counseling program and special attention to adequacy of living arrangements. In general an attempt is being made to keep orientation training on a personal basis and to develop the program around the needs and interests of the individual employees.

SUMMARY

ALTHOUGH there is a need for orientation training at any time, in a period of rapid expansion and turnover of personnel as at present, the development of a program takes on increased significance in order that valuable time will not be lost in getting employees into effective production.

In the formulation of an orientation program, these steps should be taken:

1. Study the characteristics of the group as related to the types of positions they will fill.
2. Determine the objectives which set the goal for orientation training.
3. Select the appropriate content.
4. Choose the methods, techniques, and aids that will give the new employee a vivid picture of the organization and its work program.
5. Provide a means of checking the effect of the program on the performance and attitudes of employees.

The Wartime Program of the National Civil Service Reform League

HELEN C. DRUMMOND

LONG before the fateful seventh of December, 1941, the National Civil Service Reform League was well aware of the truth of an assertion which has now become a platitude—that the success of a fighting army depends not only upon military strategy and valor, but upon the competence of a civilian army of supply at home. The League had previously had excellent opportunity to study this axiom in two wars, in 1898 and in 1917-18, when it devoted a major part of its funds, experience and energies to the titanic task of helping the federal government to recruit a civilian army of sufficient size and technical adequacy to cope with the stresses of war, and at the same time carried on its ordinary program of fighting the spoilsmen. On December 8, 1941, however, the League abandoned "business as usual," and, through its Executive Committee, offered its services to the national government for the duration of the war.

The offer was immediately accepted and a conference between the League's officers and the United States Civil Service Commission followed. Commissioner Arthur S. Flemming suggested ways in which the League might be particularly useful, among them the following:

Aiding in recruiting from private industry experts in various fields who might be made available for government service;

Aiding in promoting closer cooperation between federal and state personnel agencies

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and helping to iron out friction or clear up any misunderstandings that might arise between them;

Inducing a better understanding of the Commission's purposes by interpreting to the public generally, and to special groups in particular, some of the Commission's practices and procedures.

The first of these suggestions contemplated especially the cooperation of the League's Special Committee of Business and Industry. This Committee,¹ organized three years ago, had as its original principal objective establishment of a liaison between the League and private industry whereby the assistance of the latter might be used to best advantage toward extension of the merit system and improvement of its functioning. It was now realized that through wide and varied contacts, the members of this Committee are often in an advantageous position to get quick, confidential information as to the availability, records, and qualifications of persons equipped for specialized executive and administrative posts. This information could be forwarded to the Civil Service Commission for its consideration and further action, saving valuable time and obtaining data in many cases more reliable than might be generally accessible to a routine investigator.

¹ The Committee membership included such business leaders as: Colby M. Chester of General Foods Corporation; Donald W. Douglas of Douglas Aircraft Corporation; Malcolm Muir of "Business Week;" Raymond Rubicam of Young and Rubicam; William B. Warner of the McCall Corporation; Charles Hook of American Rolling Mill Company; and Lee H. Bristol of Bristol-Myers Company.

RECRUITING FOR THE WAR PROGRAM

THE Civil Service Commission created a three-man sub-committee to work with the League and formally appointed the League's Executive Secretary as a special examiner on a dollar-a-year basis. The League's first recruiting assignment was for men qualified to represent the government in supervising the planning, plant construction, and initial operation of industries to which the government has lent federal funds for war production, such as oil refining, manufacture of chemicals and synthetic rubber. The type of men sought were those successful enough in their fields to command five-figure salaries but willing to give their talents to the government at comparatively nominal compensation as a patriotic service. The League met this difficult assignment successfully.

The Commission next asked its help in finding practical economists for service in South America, experienced in Latin American economy, business and commerce. In a fortnight the League had interested several hundred well qualified candidates, some of them outstanding in this highly specialized field.

The Commission has since asked the League to undertake an even more difficult task—to induce prominent men of affairs in various sections of the country to act as dollar-a-year recruitment specialists to work with the Commission's regional offices on special assignment, in locating persons who have specialized experience in many fields for employment with war agencies. This vast recruiting job is complicated by the diverse needs of the various civil service regions, and by the fact that the recruiting specialists must be men who have the entree to the inner circles of their professions or industries, who command general respect and confidence, and who are able and willing to give up a considerable proportion of their time and thought to this important though unglamorous war work.

In addition to locating persons for positions such as these, recognized as within the

purview of the Special Committee of Business and Industry, the League has also been called on for help in recruiting technicians and mechanics. Here it has supplemented the work of the Commission's representatives through the personal contacts of the League's state committees and local correspondents.

These committees and correspondents were originally organized as a means of acquainting the League with what is going on merit-system-wise in the "grass roots," to serve as shock troops in campaigns for merit system legislation in their states and municipalities, and to be staunch supporters, as well as constructive critics, of public personnel agencies in their areas. As in the case of the Committee of Business and Industry, their original purpose has been enlarged to include the recruitment of men to fill the shortage of skilled workers for government arsenals and navy yards. Working through local chambers of commerce, trade associations, labor unions, and by personal contact, and with the cooperation of local newspapers and radio stations, these committees and correspondents have done yeoman service in giving regional publicity to the requirements, salary and proper application procedure to bring together the skilled jobs to be filled and the men who can fill them, and in persuading such persons to go into government service.

A FIVE-POINT PROGRAM FOR WARTIME

ALTHOUGH the League as an organization has enlisted for war work, it has not curtailed its ordinary operations, except as the march of events has dictated necessary changes. When the League held its sixtieth annual meeting in February 1942, it adopted the keynote that a time of national emergency is the time to redouble and not diminish efforts for national efficiency. The national emergency, indeed, has multiplied the League's responsibility. In ordinary times it is dangerous to let down the bars that patient years have erected against spoilsmanship and inefficiency. When the nation

is in peril it is disastrous and treasonable. At this meeting, therefore, the League resolved to continue the program already laid out for the year in addition to undertaking the extra activities outlined in the plan of cooperation with the Civil Service Commission. For the public service generally, it recommended a five-point program, as follows:

1. Reorganize the functions of our public personnel agencies, now too often exclusively confined to examining and regulating, so as to enable them more effectively to meet the personnel requirements of operating agencies.

2. Establish a more positive system of recruiting and improved and speedier means of selecting employes for specialized public service.

3. Bring about greater cooperation between federal, state and municipal agencies in meeting governmental needs for personnel and coordinate more effectively their efforts to operate jointly in many fields.

4. Systematically train those already in the public service for higher executive leadership, greater administrative responsibility and better ability to give supervisory guidance.

5. Encourage our universities and colleges to inspire those graduates who show unusual aptitude and capacity for administrative leadership to enter the government service as a civic responsibility.

At this meeting also the League gave a timely warning against the already foreshadowed use of the war as excuse for relaxing merit system standards, adopting a resolution stating:

We appreciate that it may be necessary in many cases to apply short cuts and eliminate red tape to avoid undue delay in recruiting and selecting hundreds of thousands of new employes to aid in the war emergency. We, however, must not permit our war effort to be imperilled by imposition on our public service by patronage seekers who would use the emergency as a pretext for an expansion of, or lowering of standards for, governmental employment beyond actual need for war victory.

That this warning was not premature was

shown when an Executive Order was issued, excepting from the classified civil service all the staff of the Alien Property Division of the Department of Justice. The League immediately protested against this exception. So did the Civil Service Commission. A few months later the Order was rescinded.

Indeed, even at the start of the defense program in 1940, short-sighted politicians (forgetful of the lesson of 1918, when a politically appointed explosives inspector was responsible for an accumulation of TNT which led directly to the disastrous explosion at Morgan, N. J.) attached patronage riders to the first defense appropriation bills permitting the hiring of new employes without regard to civil service rules. The League protested strenuously, and representatives of the War Department appeared before the Congressional Committee to urge that these riders be stricken out. Had these protests not been successful, there is no doubt but that the war preparations would have been handicapped at the start by wholesale foisting on the federal payroll of incompetent, untested, and unneeded political workers from every county courthouse.

The recent patronage troubles of the OPA offer another example of the kind of battle which a merit system watch-dog must wage, even in the midst of a world crisis. The League plunged into the middle of that fight when it wrote to the members of the Senate and to the President denouncing the attempt to punish Administrator Henderson for his too-independent naming of state and regional OPA officials without deference to political preferences by requiring all such appointees to be confirmed by the Senate. Here too, the patronage forces were made to retreat.

It would be foolhardy, however, to believe that they are permanently defeated. Although a similar battle over Senatorial confirmation for OCD employees has also been won, there will undoubtedly be other opportunities for the League to prove for the thousandth time that eternal vigilance is the price of a merit system victory.

CONTINUING ACTIVITIES

ALTHOUGH the League has often been charged with a naive adherence to a program centering around elimination of the spoils system at the expense of more constructive achievements, this accusation was never wholly justified and today it is without any justification whatever. Even in the early days of "reform," the League was often preoccupied with such constructive matters as the study of the superannuation problem in the civil service, the establishment of a sound foreign service personnel system, and the devising of a salary classification scheme. During the past year, examples of similar activities in the federal field include testimony at the Congressional hearings on the federal retirement legislation, attempts to secure adequate appropriations for the Civil Service Commission's war activities and for the newly established Board of Legal Examiners, numerous conferences with the personnel divisions of the War Department and other war agencies at which bothersome knots in their personnel operations were disentangled, and the working out after numerous conferences with all the groups and agencies concerned, of proposed modifications of the existing veteran preference regulations.

Three important League committees have been organized within the past three years. The Committee of Business and Industry has already been mentioned. A similar Committee of Lawyers, headed by prominent members of the profession, was represented among the groups advising the Reed Committee on recruitment of attorneys for the federal government in 1940. Members of this Committee have also made state and city bar associations merit-system-conscious, and one of them is primarily responsible for the passage of the Louisiana state civil service law and constitutional amendment. The Committee on Government Labor Relations made a study, which received considerable public attention, of the relations between government administrators and their employees and the implications of the

growth of unionization in the civil service.

Through the years the League has become increasingly conscious of the opportunities for accomplishment through stimulation of cooperative effort on the part of the millions of members of civic, professional and public employe organizations, labor unions, taxpayer and business groups, and through co-ordination of the work of all these organizations which will benefit directly or indirectly from better public personnel administration. The League works with them constantly, as opportunity affords, for the attainment of a mutual interest. For example, last summer it made a survey of personnel practices in state and provincial labor departments for the International Association of Governmental Labor Officials. It cooperated with a certain state prison association in drafting a merit system clause for inclusion in the statutes dealing with probation, and with a conservation association in drafting a merit system program for departments concerned with preservation of natural resources. Both the National League of Women Voters and the United States Junior Chamber of Commerce are represented on the League's Council, as are two of the largest organizations of federal employes—the National Federation of Federal Employes and the United National Association of Post Office Clerks.

The League has always carried on a large amount of educational work, publishing and distributing printed material on the merit system among citizen groups, teachers and students, and answering a vast number of inquiries from such sources, many of them involving a certain amount of research. In the last few years a number of radio programs on civil service have been arranged, and plans for additional programs were interrupted only by the war. So many requests have come to the League to supply speakers for meetings and forums that some have had to be refused, although the President and some of the other officers have been generous in giving their time to address such gatherings.

AFFILIATIONS WITH STATE ORGANIZATIONS

Functioning until shortly before the first world war as a clearinghouse for local civil service reform associations, the League still maintains affiliations with state organizations in California, Connecticut, Illinois, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Maryland, Missouri, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Washington and Wisconsin. Within the past year the League has organized state committees in Delaware, Iowa, Kentucky, Mississippi, Virginia, Texas, New Hampshire, Florida, and Nebraska; and has begun the formation of others in Oregon, North Dakota, Montana, South Carolina and Utah. When completely functioning, it is expected that these committees, like the existing state merit system associations, will take the initiative in campaigning for state and local merit system legislation, and in performing the same functions in the various states that the League now performs in the federal field and in those states where no state association exists. In a dozen states without any local merit system organization, the League has obtained the assistance of "correspondents," most of them young business or professional men with an interest in public administration, who have volunteered to keep the League in touch with local conditions affecting the civil service and to assist it in bringing to public knowledge matters requiring local public pressure and legislative or administrative action.

Directly, as well as through its state affiliates, correspondents, and Council members, the League carries on a continuous program of field work. Indeed, it would tax all the League's resources to meet adequately all the demands for assistance in drafting civil service laws, charter provisions, and civil service rules, furnishing leadership in legislative campaigns, interpreting judicial opin-

ions in civil service cases, and working out proper administrative procedures in jurisdictions where the merit system is still an innovation. Such situations as the St. Louis charter campaign and the resultant litigation; the litigation which pursued the Louisiana state civil service and merit system clause; the studies which had to be made and the legislation which had to be drafted and enacted into law following the New York Court of Appeals decision that the civil service rules must apply to every governmental sub-division throughout the state (in all of which the League was called upon for constant consultation and active assistance) had to be taken in its stride. It is small wonder that the League's officers have found it necessary to maintain a strenuous work schedule to meet the many and varied requests for their assistance.

IN SPITE of the war, the League expects that its 1943 legislative program, when 44 legislatures will meet, will be a heavy one. Already movements are on foot in behalf of civil service bills in a dozen states, and in all of these the League is an energetic force. Nor has the war changed the perennial politician, who feels that the distractions of a world war furnish him a heaven-sent opportunity to practice his entire bag of tricks and to try out a few new ones. Moreover, with taxes increasing at a rate unparalleled, the need of justifying the burden by getting full value for every dollar and wasting nothing on patronage and paper work presents the League with the greatest challenge it has yet had to face. Whether it will be able to meet that challenge to the full satisfaction of its members and officers remains to be seen, but this much is already assured—the League will be "all-out" for victory on every front to the full limit of all its available resources.

The Use of Marginally Punched Cards in the Examining Process

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LATE in 1941, the Rhode Island Department of Civil Service investigated the use of marginally punched file cards as a clerical aid in the examining process. As a consequence of this investigation, the department purchased a supply of cards designed especially for this purpose,¹ and the examination division has used them successfully since. The accompanying illustration and explanation will acquaint the reader with the manner in which these cards function. The primary purpose of this article, however, is to describe the manner in which they have been used by the Rhode Island State agency, and thus indirectly to suggest how they may be similarly used by other agencies.

PRINCIPAL PURPOSES OF CARDS

AN UNDERSTANDING of the manner in which these cards are utilized requires some knowledge of the application and examining procedure prevailing in Rhode Island. The examination division consists of the technical staff and the application, scoring, and typing units. One major objective in the several steps of the examining process is to assure maximum objectivity in scoring examinations, appraising applicants' training and experience qualifications,

and similar operations, by maintaining strict anonymity of applicants wherever possible. In this way, there will be no grounds for applicants or others to suspect the integrity of the agency's procedures, and any charges to this effect can be refuted convincingly simply by demonstrating the safeguards that are employed.

This is not the only purpose served by the use of these punch cards, however. As subsequently described, they greatly facilitate the problem of maintaining adequate records and controls throughout the whole of the examining process. A step-by-step description of this process will enable the reader to trace the use and utility of the cards at various points along the way.

The receipt of applications is handled by the application unit. The application itself does not contain the candidate's name; however, the "original application number" appears on a detachable stub at the top of the application form. With this form, the candidate submits a set of "application cards" on which he writes his name, address, and original application number. After all applications for a given examination have been received, they are arranged in order of original application number and renumbered consecutively from first to last, both on the stub (which contains the original number) and on the application form proper (which contains no identifying information other than the "renumber").

Meanwhile, the application cards, which contain the name, address, and original application number of each candidate, have

¹The original design of the form was developed by Winfield A. Cunningham, Chief of the Administrative Division, Rhode Island Department of Civil Service.

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also been arranged numerically by original number to correspond with the similar arrangement of the applications themselves. It is at this point that the specially designed cards are first brought into use.

These marginally punched cards come in pairs—a black-bordered card and a red-bordered card,² hinged at the side and detachable from each other. As indicated in the accompanying illustration, both cards have areas for recording and subsequently punching all scores—written, experience and training, oral, performance, combined scores, final earned rating, and final total rating (including veteran's credits)—plus a field for indicating veteran's credits claimed, and a field for the renumber. In addition to all the above, the black card, but *not* the red one, is used to record the candidate's name, address, age, and original application number.

HERE, then, is the first use of the punch cards. After the candidates' applications and application cards have been arranged in order, and with the two cards still joined at the side, the name, address, age, veteran status, original application number, and application renumber of all candidates are posted to the black cards—one card for each candidate. While the two cards are still joined, the veteran status and application renumber only are written on the red cards, and are punched on both cards at the same time. At this stage, the detachable stubs containing both original application number and application renumber are removed from the application forms proper (which henceforth are identified by renumber only). The stubs are then sealed in an envelope and filed in the vault.

At this stage, also, the cards are separated. It will be recalled that the only information appearing on the red card is the applicant's

²For the sake of brevity, these cards will henceforth be referred to simply as "punch cards." Where one of the paired cards is referred to in particular, it will be identified by the color of its border—"black" or "red," as the case may be.

renumber and veteran status. These cards are routed to the technical staff and scoring unit and become work sheets in the examining and scoring process, since applications and their content are identified by renumber only.

The black cards, which are kept in the application unit under lock and key and in custody of only one person, are then coded and punched for name, age, and original application number. (The renumber and veteran status have already been recorded and punched.) Thus these black cards contain all the essential identifying information for each candidate, relating name, original number, and renumber, and are referred to under careful restrictions and only for specific needs during the whole examining process. These specific uses will be described presently.

As has already been mentioned, the red cards are used as work sheets. They remain in the possession of the technical staff and scoring unit during the entire examination progress except when turned over to the application unit for the preparation of acceptance and rejection notices to candidates. This process occurs when the technical staff indicates on the applications proper, and on each corresponding red card, the acceptance or rejection of each candidate for competition in the examination in question. The application unit then receives the red cards, posts the acceptances or rejections on the corresponding black cards, and from the black cards prepares notices to the candidates either that they have been rejected or that they are to appear for examination at a stated time and place. After this step, the black cards are once more locked up and the red cards of accepted candidates are returned to the technicians and scorers. The red cards of rejected candidates are placed in an "out" file.

USE OF SUPPLEMENTAL FORMS

AT THIS point it might be well to describe the nature of the cards used for notices and permanent record. These cards

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Rhode Island Civil Service Form No. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100																																																																																									
EXAMINATION DIVISION																																																																																									
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APPLICATION ACCEPTED <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>																																																																																									
WRITTEN															EXPERIENCE AND TRAINING															COMBINED EXPERIENCE & TRAINING & WRITTEN																																																											
NOTICE SENT <u>5/15/42</u>																																																																																									
DID NOT APPEAR <input type="checkbox"/>																																																																																									
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WEIGHTED SCORE <u>42.2</u>															WEIGHTED SCORE <u>19.6</u>															COMBINED SCORES <u>61.8</u>																																																											
ORAL															PERFORMANCE															FINAL EARNED RATING															CALL FOR INVESTIGATION <input type="checkbox"/>																																												
NOTICE SENT															NOTICE SENT <u>5/24/42</u>															<u>86.7</u>															CALL FOR ORAL <input type="checkbox"/>																																												
DID NOT APPEAR <input type="checkbox"/>															DID NOT APPEAR <input type="checkbox"/>															<u>5.0</u>																																																											
RAW SCORE															RAW SCORE <u>83.0</u>															FINAL RATING															NOTICE SENT																																												
WEIGHTED SCORE															WEIGHTED SCORE <u>24.0</u>															<u>91.7</u>															INVESTIGATION COMPLETE																																												
VETERAN															DISABLED VETERAN															RANK ORDER															EXAMINATION NUMBER																																												
5 POINTS <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>															10 POINTS															<u>19</u>															<u>259</u>																																												
ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISION																																																																																									
NAME <u>John Aloysius Doe</u>																														YEAR OF BIRTH <u>12/21/1897</u>															APPLICATION NUMBER <u>23388</u>																																												
ADDRESS <u>99 Tennyson Avenue</u>																																																																																									
<u>Providence</u>																																																																																									
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**MARGINALLY PUNCHED FILE CARD FORM USED BY THE RHODE ISLAND
STATE DEPARTMENT OF CIVIL SERVICE**

Actual dimensions of the form illustrated are $8\frac{3}{4}$ " x 9". The basic features of the form, as well as the method of operation, may be described as follows:

1. Each blank card contains a border of small round holes, placed close to the outside edges of the card. Each hole is assigned a number in accordance with a pre-arranged numerical punching code. This code, in turn, is broken down into a series of "fields" and is correlated with the data to be written on the card. A "field" may consist of only one or two holes, or a series of several holes, depending on the type of data to be punched.

2. Information written or typed on the cards is translated to the appropriate "field" by machine or hand-punching U-shaped notches in the border of the card. Each punch is directly over the appropriate hole.

3. When it is desired to draw only those cards containing specific data in a given field from a large quantity of unsorted cards, the cards are first aligned so that their edges coincide. A long, thin "sorting needle" is then inserted in the appropriate hole (or progressively in several holes in the "field"). The cards having no punch over that particular hole remain suspended on the needle, but those whereon the hole has been punched out drop free from the pack.

As an illustration, assume that a large number of unsorted cards are to be assembled in rank order, according to the final score received. The sorting needle, inserted in the "final score" field in the proper sequence, will place all cards in rank order with the minimum of effort. After this operation, the rank order can be punched in the "rank order" field.

are all filled out by the candidate and submitted with his application. They contain his name, address, and original application number, and are kept on file in alphabetical order during the progress of the examination. When notices or reports are to be sent to the candidates, these are typed or stamped on the reverse of the cards, and the cards are then placed in the mail. One of the cards is used for the preservation of the permanent record, and is placed in a master alphabetical file of all candidates for all examinations. The fact that all these cards are filed alphabetically has significance in the use of the punched cards, as will be shown later.

Every examination which the Rhode Island Department of Civil Service administers is assigned a number, called the "Examination Number." In addition to other information already indicated, this examination number is marked and punched on all black and red punch cards at the beginning of the examining process. This number serves to identify the examination in question during the whole process. It will be recalled that, when the punch cards are first made up, they are prepared in renumber order. The red cards remain in renumber order at all times; the black cards stay in renumber order until the red cards are returned from the technical staff to the application unit with acceptances and rejections indicated. As soon as this information has been posted to the black cards, the latter are sorted by the sorting needle into alphabetical order, to correspond with the arrangement of the notice cards which each candidate has prepared and submitted with his application, and which have been put into alphabetical order after the black cards were first prepared. Thus the notice cards for acceptance or rejection are prepared alphabetically from the black cards.

STEPS IN THE APPLICATION PROCEDURE

IN MANY instances, the Rhode Island Department of Civil Service uses one application form to cover several related positions—especially when these positions form

a promotional line. Under this policy, the applicant submits a single application form to cover one or more examinations in a given series. He must, however, prepare a separate set of application cards for each separate examination involved. In such cases, a separate set of black and red punch cards is prepared for each examination for which the candidate applies, the several sets of cards being distinguished by the examination number already described.

In some cases, of course, candidates are accepted for some examinations and rejected for others in the same series. After the acceptances and rejections have been posted from the red cards to the black cards and punched, the active black cards may be separated from the rejected ones by the use of the sorting needle. This permits an analysis of exactly how many individual persons have been admitted to competition (i.e., the count of different renumbers) and of what examinations each person is taking (i.e., the number of cards having a given renumber). It is important to know these facts in preparing the examination schedule and room assignments for written tests and the like, and this information is usually presented in the form of an "overlap sheet." When room assignments have been made, they are posted for record on the black cards, transcribed to the notice cards in alphabetical order, and mailed to the candidates.

It frequently happens that the Department plans to administer more than one series of written tests on the same day. In a case of this sort it is necessary to know the total number of different examinations in each series to which each candidate has been admitted, and the maximum number of examinations that any one person is taking. To obtain this information, it is simply necessary to combine in alphabetical order all the accepted black cards for all series involved. The use of the sorting needle makes it an easy matter to do this and to return the cards to their original filing location. The alphabetical arrangement also facilitates the typing of notice cards, as shown above.

STEPS IN SCORING PROCESS

WRITTEN and other tests are identified in the same manner as applications—that is, a detachable stub on the answer sheet contains the candidate's original number. A separate card, the notice card, contains his name and original number. After the written test has been administered, answer sheets and cards are turned over to the application unit. Here the answer sheets are renumbered from the black cards, the detachable stubs are removed and sealed, and the remaining portion of the answer sheet, identified by renumber only, is turned over to the scoring unit for scoring.

As the examination progresses, the scores are recorded on the red cards. If the particular examination involves only a written test, or a written test plus rating of experience and training, the entire examination is scored and the scores are entered on the red cards without further reference to the black cards; veterans' credits are added to the grades of those veterans who attained the minimum required final earned rating; and the red cards are turned over to the application unit in renumber order in order that the results may be transcribed to the black cards and the rank order established.

If, on the other hand, there is an oral test involved, the scoring unit scores the written test. Technicians then score experience and training, forwarding to the application unit a list of renumbers of candidates who have qualified for the oral test, so that notices may be prepared from the black cards to be sent to those candidates telling them when and where to appear for the oral test. The red cards of those who have thus qualified are retained by the scoring unit, and the red cards of those who failed to qualify are relegated to the "out" file. After the oral test has been administered and scored, the active red cards are carried through to the final score, as above, and turned over to the application unit in renumber order for the results to be transcribed to the black cards and the rank order established. A similar pro-

cedure is followed for performance tests or other parts of the examination.

After the technical staff and scoring unit have completed the scoring process on the red cards, the application unit receives them for transcription of scores to the black cards. Since the red cards are in renumber order, the sorting needle is now used to put the black cards back into renumber order also, and the scores are transcribed and punched. The red cards are then packaged for permanent filing and, by the use of the sorting needle, the black cards are put into rank order by scores. After the eligible list rank order has been recorded and punched on each black card showing at least the minimum required final earned rating, cards of unsuccessful applicants are segregated. The two groups are then sorted back into alphabetical order for the transcription of scores and ranks onto the permanent record cards, which are kept in the application unit.

The black cards, in alphabetical order, are subsequently turned over to the typing unit, which prepares the notifications of results to candidates on the forms which the candidates originally submitted with their applications.³ Finally, the typing unit resorts the cards into rank order for the preparation of the employment list itself.

The black cards have now served their main purpose. From this point until thirty days after the publication of the employment list, the appeal period, they are kept alphabetically throughout each given examination in the application unit, where they are used for reference. At the close of this period they are packaged and filed permanently.

THROUGH the use of these specially designed cards, the Rhode Island Department of Civil Service finds that certain tedious processes have been eliminated,

³ At the same time, an alphabetical list of those who have passed the examination is prepared and made available for newspaper publication. The fact that names are in alphabetical order, instead of rank order, eliminates the possibility of embarrassing the lower-ranking eligibles.

coupled with a saving of man hours which compensates for the cost of the cards. Cards may be quickly sorted by application number, renumber, alphabetical order, and rank order, or on the basis of any other data contained in the various fields. For example, if a technician should wish to have a certain group of cards segregated by scores in any phase of the examination, this operation is easily performed. Candidates eligible for veterans' and disabled veterans' credit may

be quickly found, as well as other information which may be of administrative value.

Finally, the cards may be used in research on the examination as a whole—for determining correlations between individual tests and the final rating, in constructing frequency distributions, and even in the first stages of item analysis, since these cards may easily be arranged in rank order of scores on any single phase of the entire examination.

The First Federal Civil Service Commission: 1871-75 (Part III)

LIONEL V. MURPHY

PRESIDENT GRANT'S immediate adoption of the Civil Service Commission rules on December 19, 1871, as submitted on the previous day, and their effectuation on January 1, 1872, put the "advisory board of suitable persons" charged with their administration in a difficult position. The Advisory Board had the task of completing the regulations contemplated under the rules, while operating in an atmosphere filled with charges and countercharges of political motivation.¹²⁹ The fact that Grant was planning to seek renomination by early summer required something to confound his critics, both in Congress and outside. To the Senators who had inspired a series of investigations of the Administration, the Commission's report was hurled as a rebuke.

The appearance of Grant in the role of a reformer at this late hour did not mollify his critics, nor convince the stalwart patronage practitioners that he had gone overboard for civil service reform. Horace Greeley, editor of the *New York Tribune* and soon to be Grant's Democratic presidential oppo-

nent, contended that the rules simply made every office-holder dependent on Grant. These rules, charged Greeley, allowed Grant to promote "a vigorous factional proscription in his own party."¹³⁰ Grant's patronage friends in Congress—Conkling of New York, Chandler of New Hampshire, and other stalwarts—though reported by Garfield as "furious" about the Commission's report, kept an official silence save for a single outburst by Carpenter of Wisconsin.¹³¹ This attack,

¹²⁹ *New York Tribune*, December 19, 20, 1871.

¹³¹ Senator Matthew H. Carpenter of Wisconsin (Republican: 1869-75; 1879-81), introduced a resolution on January 10, 1872 on which he later spoke. The resolution read: "That any law or regulation which is designed to relieve the President . . . or heads of departments of the full responsibility of such nomination or appointments is in violation of the Constitution." About this resolution he said he wanted to submit "some remarks on the recent political delusion called 'civil service reform' by transferring the patronage of the Government from officers in whom the Constitution vests it to a board of schoolmasters to sit in Washington." *Cong. Globe*, 42 Cong. 2 Sess. January 10, 1872, p. 333.

On January 18, 1872, Carpenter began his long speech on this resolution by declaring that he was a "loyal and ardent friend of the President." He further declared, "I deeply regret the recent message by the President to Congress adopting the rules recommended by the civil service board." His address, though typical of all anti-civil service speeches, deserves a summarization for he had represented the Government in the celebrated McCordle case (1868) and had brought to trial the validity of some of the Reconstruction Acts before the Supreme Court. Continuing in his speech, Carpenter made this his thesis: "It pledges the President to a line of official conduct which in my belief is altogether unconstitutional; and if not unconstitutional will, if adhered to, prove most pernicious in results." His principal objections were twofold: (1) The rules "violate the Constitution in that they take from the President the discretion which the Constitution vests in him, to select from the whole body of the people, limiting him to the three names or less reported by the examining board; thus transferring the nominating power from the President to a board unknown to the Constitution and laws." (2) "They set up a standard of education as prescribed in the schools, and thus preclude from public affairs every man who has not received the benefit of a liberal education; thus creating,

¹²⁹ Senator Schurz, in the forefront of early civil service reformers, told Curtis in an interview prior to the adoption of the rules that he "thought the details of the plan admirable, but the system would not be put in operation and that Congress in a spirit of antagonism would take up the subject and effect a reform by legislation." *Minutes of the Civil Service Commission*, p. 48, November 16, 1871. (Hereinafter cited as *Minutes*).

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though typical of those against civil service reform, caused Curtis some concern. But he reported at a session of the Board that in an interview with him the President had expressed himself as undisturbed" by it.¹³² In the face of reactions to the Commission's work, it became obvious that Grant and his friends were "too clever to quarrel over so popular a measure."¹³³

COMMISSION DESIGNATED AS ADVISORY BOARD

THE President's acceptance of the rules on December 19, 1871, closed one phase of the Commission's work and began another. Secretary of State Fish in his letter of December 23, 1871 to the Commission, acknowledging for Grant the adoption of the rules, stated the new functions of the Commission. He wrote that, at the direction of the President, "you will hereafter perform all the duties which in your report, particularly in the second rule thereof, you fix as the duties of an *advisory board*."¹³⁴ Whereupon the Commission at its next session,

too, a governmental class to be composed of the sons of the rich, to the exclusion of the sons of the poor, in violation of the most essential principle of republican institutions." *Cong. Globe, loc. cit.*, January 18, 1872, pp. 453-57.

Other opinions expressed by Carpenter included: that "civil service reform" was a cunning catchword "for whoever is not in favor of reform must be for abuses;" that some of the rules were contradictory as to meaning; that in view of the rules only "adventurers, men of no condition and no importance" would apply; that the report of the Commission scorned facts and reveled in theories. *Ibid.*, pp. 453-60.

In the course of his attack, several colloquies took place. Trumbull, in defense of the report, thought Carpenter was wrong as to the unconstitutionality of the Act. Frelinghuysen expressed the belief that the President had not read the report at all. Carpenter declared that the report "arraigns and condemns every officer in the Government, from the President to the lowest subordinate. It divides Congressmen into two classes, knaves and fools. The first recommends improper persons for selfish and corrupt motives and the second are 'wheelled' into doing the same thing." *Ibid.*, p. 457. Carpenter was confident that the "President is attempting to execute what just at present seems to be the popular wish. . . . The President, as a candidate for reelection, has been compelled to act while a popular delusion is ruling the hour." *Ibid.*, p. 453. No vote was taken on this resolution.

¹³² *Minutes*, p. 104, January 20, 1872.

¹³³ W. B. Hesseltine, *Ulysses S. Grant: Politician* (1935), p. 263.

¹³⁴ (Italics are author's.) *Minutes*, pp. 93-94, January 4, 1872. For other portions of this letter, see Part I of this article, *Public Personnel Review*, July 1942, p. 225.

January 4, 1872, organized itself as a body called the "Advisory Board of the Civil Service." Cox, member from the Interior Department, moved to elect Curtis chairman of the Board.

This "body of suitable persons" continued to be known as the Advisory Board of the Civil Service until June 4, 1873, when the Board, under chairmanship of Dorman B. Eaton, agreed to return to its first designation, the "Civil Service Commission."¹³⁵ Up to passage of the Civil Service Act of January 16, 1883 Eaton regarded himself as Chairman of the Civil Service Commission despite its abandonment by Grant and Congress in March 1875.¹³⁶ The name "Civil Service Commission," Curtis declared in later years, came about as a matter of "courtesy."¹³⁷

EFFECTUATION OF THE RULES

ONCE Grant had adopted the rules, the next step lay with the Advisory Board to put them in operation.¹³⁸ Almost immediately, on January 10, 1872, the Board was compelled to ask the President to issue an amendment to the Executive Order of December 19, 1871, staying the effective date of that order (January 1, 1872), "pending the completion of methods of investigation and examination contemplated by the

¹³⁵ In the rules promulgated August 5, 1873 "further promoting the efficiency of the Civil Service," Rule 10 reads: "So many of the persons employed by the President under section 9 of the Act of March 3, 1871, as are referred to in the opinion of the Attorney General of August 31, 1871 under the name of the Civil Service Commission are still in such employment . . . shall hereafter be regarded as composing and shall be designated as, 'The Civil Service Commission,' and the use of the designation 'Advisory Board,' as referring to such persons, will be hereafter discontinued."

¹³⁶ See statement by Dorman B. Eaton before Senate Select Committee of the Civil Service, Sen. Report No. 872, 46th Cong. 3rd Sess. (1881), p. 13.

¹³⁷ Statement of Curtis before Senate Committee on Civil Service and Retrenchment, Sen. Report No. 576, 47 Cong. 1 Sess. (1882), p. 179. The *Washington Evening Star* as a matter of practice generally referred to Curtis' committee as the "Civil Service Commission." See Part I of this article, *Public Personnel Review* January 1942, footnote 31, p. 33.

¹³⁸ Immediately upon its organization, the Board instructed Curtis to inform the President that it was ready "for business and [its] duties would be facilitated by the appointment of departmental boards as soon as practicable." *Minutes*, p. 94, January 4, 1872.

rules." The amendment permitted the making of temporary appointments to fill vacancies which were to "terminate . . . when the details of investigation and examination have been completed by the Advisory Board."¹³⁹ Nearly four months later, on April 11, 1872, the Board completed the report that its predecessor, the Commission, had contemplated under the rules. This report to the President included a set of regulations, seventeen in number, designed to govern administrative details. Further, it contained the grouping of the positions of the departments and the regulations governing examinations for clerkships of class one and to all lower grades open to competition.¹⁴⁰

The Advisory Board continued its sessions several times weekly from January 4 to April 16, 1872, the date of the promulgation of the complete rules and regulations. It passed upon a considerable range of problems and completed its grouping of positions in the several departments.¹⁴¹ It met less frequently thereafter.

¹³⁹ This amendment became Rule 14, which Grant approved in a letter that Curtis read to the Commission. *Minutes*, p. 99, January 11, 1872.

¹⁴⁰ The Advisory Board's complete rules are styled "Rules and Regulations for the Improvement of the Civil Service." Subsequently they were published in two editions: "Edition for Washington" and "Edition for New York." The latter contained additional rules governing positions in the Customs Houses and the Post Office. These rules and regulations may be found in a compilation, approved May 14, 1872, which include: (1) Executive Order of April 16, 1872; (2) rules and regulations for the civil service promulgated by the President December 19, 1871, as amended by the Executive Order of April 16, 1872; (3) regulations promulgated by the President April 16, 1872; (4) a schedule of groups prepared by the Advisory Board, as amended May 31, 1872; (5) regulations governing admission to the Departments; and (6) regulations governing examinations for promotion.

¹⁴¹ The Board continued to conduct its sessions in the same manner as when organized as the Civil Service Commission. Curtis gave considerable attention and time to the reception that civil service reform was receiving in newspapers, magazines, and speeches. Curtis frequently read to the Board "various articles in newspapers about 'reform of the Civil Service.'" The Board subscribed to the *Congressional Globe*. It obtained a set of bills and reports on the civil service from the Clerk of the House of Representatives. Among other minor activities, the Board heard from various persons and governmental officials arguments for and against various recommendations and suggestions that had been advanced from all quarters. A memorandum was received

SOME PROBLEMS CONSIDERED

THE machinery to be established for conducting examinations took considerable discussion. The composition of the departmental boards and the nature of their functions evoked repeated attention throughout the final period. The Advisory Board, after extended discussion, "decided that it was inadvisable to have a member of [its own] Board on the departmental boards of examiners."¹⁴² This rejected suggestion had not heretofore been made. Rule 8 required that "the President will designate three persons in each department . . . to serve as a board of examiners," subject to the supervision of the Advisory Board.¹⁴³ A few days later, the Advisory Board agreed that in addition to its designated duties in Rule 8 it was the "duty of the examining board in each department to report to [it] such modifications in the operations of the general rules" wherein they seemed practicable.¹⁴⁴

The Board in carrying out the provisions of Rule 8 foresaw that a lack of uniformity in several matters would result among the departmental boards unless they worked in close harmony. In an early discussion, the Board considered an "Outline of examinations for clerkships in the Executive Departments at Washington."¹⁴⁵ Later the Board agreed that "it was desirable to have, so far as practicable, the examination for . . . first

"in reference to superannuation allowance for aged employees in the civil service of the Government." Several Governmental officials appeared before the Board to give detailed accounts of the work of their organizations and to make suggestions as to how the rules might best be effectuated. They also appeared to discuss the proposed grouping of positions within their agencies.

¹⁴² *Minutes*, p. 100, January 11, 1872.

¹⁴³ The *Minutes* do not indicate what member of the Board advanced this suggestion. Presidential designation, instead of by each department head, was a reversal of its original recommendation, to which Jenckes, when asked for his opinion, had vigorously objected. In view of his objections and reasons therefor, the then Commission accepted his suggestion. See footnote 85, Part II of this article, *Public Personnel Review*, July 1942, p. 223.

¹⁴⁴ *Minutes*, p. 126, February 17, 1872.

¹⁴⁵ *Minutes*, p. 97, January 8, 1872. "Rev. Dr. McCash, President of Princeton College, appeared before the Board by invitation of Mr. Curtis and offered some suggestions in regard to the scope of examination, based upon his experience in connection with the civil service system of Great Britain." *Ibid.*, p. 112, February 1, 1872.

class clerkships uniform in each of the Executive Departments."¹⁴⁶ This was followed up when the Board resolved that each departmental board "should prepare a schedule of subjects of examinations for appointment to positions of the character indicated," so that they may later meet "for the purpose of adopting a uniform schedule."¹⁴⁷

From the first the Advisory Board had urged the appointment of the members of the departmental boards "as soon as practicable." But none were made until the completion of the rules and regulations, so Curtis, after an interview with the President, called upon the members of the Cabinet to obtain "the names of gentlemen to be designated as a board of examiners in the departments, and to leave an invitation to them to attend" an early session of the Advisory Board on April 16.¹⁴⁸ Thus some of the departmental board members were designated in time to meet with the Advisory Board on April 16, 1872 to consult with it "as to the methods of carrying into effect the regulations adopted for the improvement of the civil service." At this meeting Curtis declared that the work of the Advisory Board would from now on "be of a formal and ceremonial kind, while the determination of subjects for examinations and so forth would fall upon the examining boards."¹⁴⁹ At a subsequent session of the Board this devolution of responsibility for the administration of the examination system was again confirmed. After the work of the Advisory Board was completed, Curtis said, the Board would

then continue only "for purposes of supervision" and the related matters as provided in the rules, "but the work of conducting the examinations would fall upon the boards in the departments."¹⁵⁰

IN THE drafting of the regulations, as well as the rules, two departments required special consideration with regard to establishing the competitive system. Almost from the beginning much attention was given, first by the Civil Service Commission and then by the Advisory Board, to the problems of the Post Office Department and the Department of State.

The postal service, extending to every hamlet of the land, presented personnel problems, to say nothing of political ramifications, that practically overwhelmed the administrative imagination of the Board. Various proposals were entertained. At first postmasters were to be exempted from the rules; then they were included but made the subject of a special rule. Then Curtis moved to limit the scope of the rules, recommending that postmasters with salaries under \$500 be exempted. This was rejected by the Board.¹⁵¹ Examinations for postal clerks and methods of promotion were also discussed at several sessions, at one of which Postmaster General J. A. J. Creswell appeared "to offer suggestions in regard to regulations for his department."¹⁵²

¹⁴⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 146, April 22, 1872. "The problems of localities at which examinations should be held through the country" were considered at one of the earlier sessions of the Board. *Ibid.*, p. 96, January 7, 1872. Regulations were considered for holding examinations at the State capitals and at Washington for filling vacancies in the departments at Washington. It was decided that examinations would be held outside Washington when so directed by a head of a department in which a vacancy occurred. See Regulation No. 3, *loc. cit.*, p. 8.

¹⁴⁷ *Minutes*, p. 94, January 4, 1872. See footnote 89, Part II of this article, *Public Personnel Review*, July 1942, p. 223.

¹⁴⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 111, January 31, 1872. The Board resolved the difficulties by dividing all post offices into two groups: (1) those in cities of 20,000 and over in population; and (2) those under 20,000 in population. In post offices of the first group, vacancies in the postmasterships were to be filled by a selection from among the subordinates in such offices. The Postmaster General under the regulation adopted was required to ascertain whether subordinates at each post office not to exceed three in number

¹⁴⁶ *Minutes*, p. 143, April 16, 1872.

¹⁴⁷ *Ibid.* The date of the meeting was set April 22, 1872, six days after the promulgation of the rules and regulations, as amended. Some departmental board members presented various "schemes in reference to applications for appointments to first class clerkships." These were referred to a committee appointed by Curtis composed of one member of each departmental board, which was to report back on April 27 "a schedule or method of application and examination adapted to each of the departments." *Ibid.*, p. 146, April 22, 1872.

¹⁴⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 141, April 10, 1872.

¹⁴⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 142, April 16, 1872. The Departments represented were: Treasury, Interior, and Post Office. Curtis was instructed at this session of the Board "to invite the gentlemen to be designated from the other departments."

The consular service received special consideration in regard to regulations for filling vacancies. All but the highest consular officers were tentatively excepted from the rules inasmuch as they were regarded as bonded officials.¹⁵³ However, after a consultation with Secretary of State Hamilton Fish, the Board agreed to a grouping of consular offices in accordance with salaries, and established peculiar conditions governing the filling of vacancies occurring in each group.¹⁵⁴ Ambassadors and other public ministers had been excepted previously under Rule 13, which exempted all policy-deciding officials and certain other officers and employees.¹⁵⁵

could qualify, and if so, he was to certify their names to the President from among whom the latter would make a nomination subject to Senate confirmation. Otherwise, postmaster vacancies would be "filled at the discretion of the President." Vacancies in clerkships would be filled by examination as provided for under the general rules.

In the second group, a vacancy in the postmastership would be filled by a selection from applications of subordinates in such office, or persons living in such vicinity, addressed to the Board of Examiners of the Post Office at Washington. Each such applicant was to submit "certificates of character, responsibility, and capacity." This board would, after an appraisal of the applications, if any were found qualified, certify no more than three names "and from them the nomination or appointment would be made." If none could qualify, the vacancy would be filled at the discretion of the Postmaster General or the President. Clerkships in such post offices could be filled, "until otherwise ordered" without reference to the rules. *Ibid.*, p. 110, January 30, 1872.

Special agents of the Post Office were to be appointed by the Postmaster General at discretion from persons in the postal service with at least one year of experience. Mail route messengers were to be appointed in the same manner as provided in Rule 6 for postmasters with salaries under \$200. See regulations No. 10 and 11; also No. 8 and 9, *Rules and Regulations for the Civil Service*, December 19, 1871, as amended April 16, 1872, p. 9.

¹⁵³ *Minutes*, p. 111, February 5, 1872.

¹⁵⁴ *Minutes*, pp. 122, 137, February 15 and March 21, 1872. Consular offices were grouped as follows: (1) Vacancies in offices of \$3,000 were to be filled by the President at his discretion, either by transfer within the service or by a new appointment which might be made without regard to the rules. (2) Vacancies in offices of \$1,000 to \$3,000, if not filled by transfer, were to be filled by appointment by the Secretary of State, based on applications for such offices addressed to him. Persons regarded as qualified were to be asked "to attend for examination," and if found qualified, were to be nominated, subject to Senate confirmation. (3) Vacancies in offices of less than \$1,000 were to be filled by the principal officer who was responsible for such persons upon his official bond. (4) Vacancies in consular offices not otherwise provided for under the rules were to be filled by transfer of some person in the consular service by the President. *Ibid.* See also Regulation No. 5, *loc. cit.*, p. 8.

¹⁵⁵ See text of Rule 13, Part II of this article, *Public Personnel Review*, July 1942, p. 224.

Vacancies in the civil service as recognized by the Board were to be filled either without regard to, or within the framework of, the rules and regulations. As to the former, the Board, as did the Civil Service Commission, recognized in Rule 13 a number of high positions, policy deciding in nature,¹⁵⁶ and several other positions, so peculiar in character as to make them impracticable for inclusion under a competitive system. To the original rule, the Board added heads of bureaus. However, the Board did not stop at that. It sought to put into effect a self-limitation on the appointing power of the President and heads of departments. Regulations were devised in the event of vacancies in certain positions, usually requiring Senate confirmation whereby the President or heads of departments would make appointments under given circumstances: (1) a transfer within the civil service; (2) promotion within the unit in which vacancy occurs, or at least within the department, and from a district if a field position; (3) from certifications by departmental examining boards to heads of departments as to the integrity, responsibility, and capacity of persons who have filed for such positions, based on an appraisal of their applications.¹⁵⁷

PROMOTIONS along organizational lines were advocated. The Commission thought that the grouping and grading of

¹⁵⁶ The exempting of high positions, such as heads of departments, assistant secretaries of departments, judges, and others, was made not solely because of the fact that nominations to such posts required Senate confirmation, but also in recognition of the political party process and its influence over the broad policies of the government. Curtis was a strong believer in political parties and maintained that they should be held accountable for their activity. Other members of the Board held similar views. See Part I of this article, *Public Personnel Review*, January 1942, pp. 33-34. However, it remained for Eaton to expound and explain about the exempting of policy-deciding officials, that is, those, as he said, who "stand for the policy and principles of the power in power." *Infra*, footnote 202.

¹⁵⁷ See Regulations Nos. 5 to 14, *Rules and Regulations for the Improvement of the Civil Service* (Edition for Washington) April 16, 1872, pp. 8-11. Positions generally requiring Senate confirmation included: Consularships, collectors of customs, collectors of internal revenue, postmasterships, special agents, United States Marshals, registrars of land offices and territorial offices.

positions adopted should be made "so as to confine promotions in each bureau in the first instance to persons employed in such bureau." This was recommended for several kinds of positions. Other promotions could well be confined to the service in which the positions were generally located.¹⁵⁸

The Board during the classification of all positions in the several departments agreed to exceptions from time to time in addition to those previously exempted in the operations of the rules. Positions of "firemen, porters, cleaners, and laborers in every department were to be appointed at will."¹⁵⁹ Private secretaries, stenographers and translators were also exempted.¹⁶⁰ Up to the last moment heads of bureaus in the departments at Washington, "except such as are excepted by name," were to be appointed "at will by the President or the head of the department as the case may be from persons within the group in which the office is included who in the judgment of the head of the department are suitable and qualified;" but if none are found, "the appointment is to be made from suitable and qualified persons within the department." If such person is still unavailable, "the appointment is to be made at discretion."¹⁶¹ Elliott later proposed to permit the appointment of heads of bureaus "so as to give the heads of the departments an unrestricted choice in the matter." This was rejected by a 3 to 1 vote of the Board.¹⁶² However, Cabinet members later asked that these bureau heads be exempted, and to this the Board agreed.

¹⁵⁸ *Minutes*, p. 95, January 4, 1872. These included certain positions in customs districts, post offices, offices of collector, and consular offices.

¹⁵⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 115, February 3, 1872. See also Part I of this article, *Public Personnel Review*, January 1942, p. 39.

¹⁶⁰ *Minutes*, p. 124, February 16, 1872.

¹⁶¹ *Ibid.*, p. 114, February 2, 1872. On the previous day, the Board had adopted this qualified exemption but without reference to appointment "by the President or the head of the department, etc." Further, it specified appointment "to persons in the service . . . for a period not less than one year immediately preceding." *Ibid.*, p. 112, February 1, 1872.

¹⁶² For, Elliott; against, Curtis, Cattell, and Blackfan; not present, Medill, Cox, and Walker. *Ibid.*, p. 132, March 6, 1872. This vote is the only one recorded during the sessions of the Board. See *infra*, footnote 168.

As in case of the rules approved December 19, 1871, Curtis proposed a report which he discussed with the Board on March 30, 1872. It was, as a result, modified "in some particulars." Then Curtis later presented another report "somewhat different in tone." This was read and after consideration it was agreed to consolidate the two into one. Then this was "further revised and amended." Only a few copies of this report were distributed.¹⁶³

¹⁶³ *Minutes*, pp. 135, 139, 149 March 20, April 2, and 29, 1872. Minutes of April 29, 1872 contain this statement: "Mr. Elliott presented an edition of 30 copies containing the executive order, the report, the regulation and the grouping [of the positions]. . . . These copies were divided amongst the members and it was agreed that no further copies whatever of the report, regulations, or classification should be printed by the Advisory Board." *Ibid.*, p. 149, April 29, 1872.

There is, however, a galley of this report in the files of the Library of the United States Civil Service Commission. In this report of the Advisory Board, Curtis confined its contents to a summary of the difficulties encountered in the drafting of the regulations and a statement of some problems yet unsolved. He said that "the reason for most of the regulations that we submit is obvious."

With regard to the classification of positions, the Advisory Board pointed out that the "law of 1853 grades the clerks and in those offices we have therefore observed the same classification, making in each Bureau a group of four classes of clerks, with the chief clerks of the Bureau at the highest grade." Thus "the grouping which we propose is that which, in the language of the rule, is practicable under existing laws." Certain exceptions were explained. (p. 1 galley.)

With respect to the conduct of examinations, the Advisory Board recommended holding examinations "out in the States." But at the same time it recognized in connection with such examinations the problems of geography and the "uncertainty of Congressional appropriations." (p. 2 galley.)

The Board recommended that, when a term of office is fixed by law, reappointment should be made without examination, the first term being regarded as a sort of probation. (p. 2 galley.)

The Board strongly recommended, and Grant also concurred in a message to Congress, that compensation should be paid to the government employees selected to help administer the rules. This recommendation was the alternative to avoiding the creating of additional positions "to operate the civil service system." (p. 1 galley.)

The Board pointed out that it "deprecates a policy of proscription against those persons who may have been enemies of the Government of the United States and even in arms against it." To prevent this, the Board recommended that "no person shall be appointed to any position in the service who shall not have furnished satisfactory evidence of his present fidelity to the Union and the Constitution." (p. 3 galley.)

The Board said in conclusion, "we beg to state that the regulations which . . . we recommend are tentative only; . . . we are convinced . . . that an improved system of the civil service will be gradually developed by the experiment. . . . We therefore believe that the public

PROMULGATION OF RULES AND REGULATIONS

ON MARCH 20, 1872, Curtis reported to the Board that he had presented to the President the regulations tentatively agreed upon, including the classification of positions. The President in turn laid them before the Cabinet. Several amendments "were suggested by some members of the Cabinet, part of which were approved by the President and part disapproved."¹⁶⁴ Curtis also stated that the President had consented to issue the Executive Order he had drafted after consulting with Hamilton Fish. The order, after one change made by Cattell of the Board which was subsequently approved by Fish, reads in major part as follows:

The recommendations [of the Commission] are approved and the provisions will be enforced as rapidly as the proper arrangements can be made. . . .

The utmost fidelity and diligence will be expected of all officers in every branch of the service. Political assessments, as they are called, have been forbidden within the various Departments; and while the right of all persons in official position to take part in politics is acknowledged, and the elective franchise is recognized as a high trust to be discharged by all entitled to its exercise, whether in the employment

sentiment which demands administrative reform would be more satisfied with a limited but effective application of the rules which have been adopted than by an inadequate effort at universal application; the failure of which would only postpone the proposed improvement of the service." (p. 3 galley.) *Papers and Historical Memoranda of Commissioners and Employees from 1871 to 1883*, vol. 1, p. 64 f. [Manuscripts received in July, 1916 from T. L. Deland, Clerk to the Treasury Board of Examiners, in Library of the United States Civil Service Commission. These manuscripts, comprising mostly papers of E. B. Elliott, member of the Commission and Secretary, and of Charles Lyman, Chairman of the Board of Examiners of the Treasury Department, are an assorted variety of notes. They include some first drafts of minutes of meetings of the Civil Service Commission from the first meeting June 28, 1871 through September 27, 1874, some correspondence and brief memoranda of Curtis, Eaton, Elliott, and Walker, and minutes of some meetings of the Board of Examiners of the Treasury Department. These volumes also contain materials relative to the civil service reform movement from 1853 until the passage of the Act of 1883. The papers are probably incomplete records of the activity to which they pertain since preservation seems to have been accidental. These papers and historical memoranda are hereinafter cited as "Elliott Papers." They are bound in three scrap books: vol. I, 1853-1879; Vol. II, 1880-1882; vol. III, 1883.]

¹⁶⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 134, March 20, 1872. Cabinet amendments accepted were: (1) exemption from the rules of employees in "the secret service" and "Indian agents and Indian superintendents;" and (2) minor changes in the text of the rules. *Ibid.*, p. 135.

of the Government or in private life,¹⁶⁵ honesty and efficiency, not political activity will determine the tenure of office.¹⁶⁶

The report of the Board which Curtis had prepared and the regulations finally agreed to were presented to the President on April 11, 1872.¹⁶⁷ On April 16, 1872, Grant issued the Executive Order that had been drafted by Curtis, together with the rules previously approved December 19, 1871, the regulations proposed by the Board with minor changes¹⁶⁸ and the schedule of groups of positions in the several departments.¹⁶⁹ The rules and regulations went into actual operation on May 16, 1872 and the Treasury Department held the first competitive examination on June 5, 1872.

POLITICAL consequences of Grant's reelection brought little comfort to the civil service reformers. Completely ignoring the civil service rules, Grant made appointments "according to political preferences." This, it was said, he did contrary to his expressed intentions.¹⁷⁰ In his message to Con-

¹⁶⁵ This clause inserted before "honesty" was suggested by Cattell. *Minutes*, p. 135, March 20, 1872.

¹⁶⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 135, March 20, 1872. Text of Executive Order is found with the compilation of the rules and regulations, *loc. cit.* p. 3.

¹⁶⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 143, April 16, 1872.

¹⁶⁸ Regulation No. 2 was amended by striking out "board of examiners" and inserting in lieu thereof "head of the Department in which the appointment is to be made." This regulation thus made the calling of examinations a responsibility of the heads of departments instead of the departmental boards of examiners. Regulation No. 3 was amended by substituting "head of department" for "advisory board." This regulation thus put the responsibility on the head of the department in which the vacancy occurs for calling examinations for field positions. Two other regulations were stricken out. These apparently pertained to a limitation as to locality in which examinations were to be held. To Rule 13, comprising the exemptions to the rules, were added all Assistant Postmasters General and "other heads of bureaus." The effect of the latter was making the appointment of all heads of bureaus "absolutely at the discretion" of the President or head of the department. *Ibid.*, p. 144, April 16, 1872.

¹⁶⁹ Medill had previously authorized his approval of the report, regulations and the grouping of positions. He suggested that Chicago be added to the list of ports cited in Regulation No. 6. This was agreed to. *Minutes*, p. 140, April 5, 1872. Walker telegraphed his approval of the report and regulations. *Ibid.*

¹⁷⁰ The New York *Tribune* repeatedly charged that Grant ignored the rules. It was, it should be noted, possible when no qualified persons were available after determination under the rules to make appointments

gress of December 1872, he said that "during my term of office it shall be my earnest endeavor to so apply the rules as to secure the greatest possible reform in the civil service of the Government." However, he qualified the extent of their effectiveness. He declared that "it cannot be expected that any system of rules can entirely be effective, and prove a perfect remedy for the existing evils, until they have been thoroughly tested by an actual practice, and amended according to the requirements of the service."

Although Grant asked Congress for an appropriation for extra pay for the clerks of the Board, privately asking Garfield to put it through the House, his actions continued to belie his vocal and written declarations in favor of reform. So much was this true that Curtis had early in 1873, in view of a certain appointment in the New York Customs House, decided that Grant had abandoned "both the spirit and the letter of the rules." Curtis felt that this appointment had so violated the spirit of civil service reform that he could no longer retain the chairmanship of the Commission. He resigned on March 27, 1873. But before he had acted upon this decision, he was stricken with a serious illness.¹⁷¹ A few days later, when Joseph Medill formally resigned from the Commission because of his duties as Mayor of Chicago, Grant wrote him repeating the words of his

inaugural, "The spirit of rules will be maintained."¹⁷²

Again to the surprise of all, Grant appointed Dorman B. Eaton of New York City to succeed Curtis. Eaton was one of the most ardent of civil service reformers. He eagerly seized the opportunity to continue the work of Curtis. He immediately plunged into "further improving the rules and regulations of the Advisory Board." His legal training and devotion to civic activity fitted him well for his task. His work and experience with the Board made him the choice for the first chairman of the new Civil Service Commission when popular revulsion against the tragic circumstances of President Garfield's death was instrumental in bringing about passage of the Pendleton Act in 1883.¹⁷³

¹⁷² Hesselstine, *op. cit.*, p. 359, cited and quoted. Medill, in a letter to the Board, said he could no longer serve as a member and asked Curtis to request the President to appoint another member. *Minutes*, p. 101, January 15, 1872. However, he remained as a member until April 1873. He continued to serve until then by correspondence.

After the promulgation of the Rules and Regulations April 16, 1872, the Advisory Board met a few times up to June 1, 1872. These meetings pertained to the work of the new Boards of Examiners in the several departments. Then again on January 27, 1873 the Board met to discuss "the workings of the Civil Service System since the last meeting, June 1, 1872." (*Minutes*, January 27, 1873, in "Elliott Papers," vol. I, p. 114.) Curtis announced at this meeting that the President expressed a desire for the Board "to call upon him and the Cabinet." Further, Curtis said that he had called on Grant, who "spoke of undue proportion of applicants from the District of Columbia and immediate vicinity." He also said that "the President expressed a pretty positive feeling that the examinations should be confined to the lower positions." (*Ibid.*, p. 115A). The next day the Commission met with the President and the Cabinet. *Minutes* refer only to a "prolonged and harmonious interview with the President and the several heads of the departments," after which the Board reassembled at "the regular place of meeting." (*Ibid.*, January 28, 1873, p. 118). This was the last meeting Curtis attended before he resigned. He was reported by his wife as too ill to attend the meetings of the Board February 24, and 26, 1873. (*Ibid.*, p. 118.) No business was transacted at these two meetings.

¹⁷³ Dorman B. Eaton (1823-1899) was a New York City lawyer, a Harvard law graduate; he assisted Judge William Kent to prepare a new edition of his famous father's *Commentaries*; after a murderous assault by unknown persons on his life, he devoted the remainder of his years to civic reform; President Hayes sent him abroad, at his own expense, to study and report on the operation of the British Civil Service; consequently he wrote *Civil Service in Great Britain* (1879) which remained long a standard work; he drafted the Civil Service Act of 1883, and was the first head of the United States Civil Service Commission.

"at the discretion" of the President or head of a department. The crux of the issue lay in the spirit rather than the letter of the rules. Hesselstine cites examples of Grant's ignoring the rules. *Ulysses S. Grant: Politician* (1935) p. 359.

¹⁷¹ See also Edward Cary, *George William Curtis* (1894), p. 233; Hesselstine, *op. cit.*, p. 359. Allan Nevins, in his *Hamilton Fish: The Inner History of the Grant Administration* (1937), p. 659, says that Grant "had always regarded Curtis as a nuisance." Fish's diary of Cabinet meetings disclose a lack of confidence in the civil service rules. *Ibid.*, p. 600-01. Curtis did not retire from his post in bitterness, instead he was philosophical. He well knew that a powerful element in the Republican party was bitterly hostile to reform. His comment on it was: "History teaches no lesson more distinctly than that nothing is so practical as principle, nothing so little visionary as honesty. Political movements, like all other good courses, are constantly betrayed by the ignorance which thinks itself smartness, and the contempt of ideas which is called practical common sense." Sherman S. Rogers, "George William Curtis and Civil Service Reform," *Atlantic Monthly*, January 1893, p. 19.

REPORT OF JUNE 4, 1873

THE Commission, with Eaton now as its chairman, made a "brief report," as it was called, on June 4, 1873. The report was based upon an inquiry "into the practical administration of the Rules and Regulations thus far inaugurated, as well as into the immediate prospects and probable utility of Civil Service Reform."¹⁷⁴

In its report, the Commission made plain its conviction that the officials concerned had enforced the rules and regulations with "perfect fidelity to the essential principles of Civil Service Reform," and with "a degree of vigor which only needs the support of an appreciative public opinion to secure the complete enforcement and vindication of that reform." The Commission thought that, despite the acceptance of civil service reform, "many misconceive both the aims and the practical operations of the reform itself."¹⁷⁵ It was convinced that the success of civil service reform would be decided "by the intelligent fidelity with which its friends shall present its true methods to the popular judgment."¹⁷⁶

This report served as an introduction to a set of supplementary rules recommended to the President on June 4, 1873, which he made effective on August 5, 1873. These rules were designed for a two-fold purpose: (1) to implement the existing rules; and (2) to define more clearly some of the aims of civil service reform.¹⁷⁷

¹⁷⁴ *Report of Civil Service Commission*, June 4, 1873, p. 3.

¹⁷⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 4.

¹⁷⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 5-6.

¹⁷⁷ These "further rules for promoting the efficiency of the civil service" are found as an appendix, together with the Executive Order of August 5, 1873 promulgating the date of their effectiveness, of the Commission's report of June 4, 1873. Below is a summary of these rules with an abstract of the Commission's justification for them:

Rule 1 provided that recommendations for "any nomination or appointment to office or place in the Civil Service" by any person, other than officers as to their own subordinates, must be "made in writing and signed by the person making them, setting forth the character of the person and his qualifications for the office." Further, no official could make a recommendation to another except upon the written request of the latter. The Commission believed that this rule would free the ap-

It was made clear that positions involving the determination of "public policy" would be exempted from these supplementary rules. The Commission declared that once the public saw how a merit system operated

pointing power of the importunism of those "often wholly unworthy" and give relief to those who under pressure are reluctantly compelled to urge the appointment of doubtfully qualified persons. See *Report of the Civil Service Commission*, June 4, 1873, p. 7.

Rule 2 stated that while the civil service rules did not restrict either the removal power or the power to extend tenure, that such power must not be exercised arbitrarily and that no person may be removed "for the mere purpose of making a place for any other person." This rule, thought the Commission, would assure the retention of competent persons found in office. *Ibid.*, p. 7.

Rule 3 was intended to put at rest in the public mind the duties of the Civil Service Commission and the Boards of Examiners with regard to "any recommendation, application or question concerning appointments or removals." The Commission was of the opinion that a "mischievous impression was known to exist in the public mind" to the effect that both the Commission and Boards of Examiners were exceeding their authority as expressed in the rules and regulations. *Ibid.*, p. 7.

Rule 4 provided examinations for "female clerks" in positions placed below those of Class 1 and gave preference to those "having the highest claims to public consideration." The Commission believed that "patriotism and public justice would be well served if women who had been dependent upon those 'having suffered or died in the public service of the nation,' were duly considered when otherwise qualified through examination. *Ibid.*, pp. 7-8.

Rule 5 provided that notices to appear at any examination for positions in Class 1 and above must be explicit, to prevent any misapprehension, in advising "female applicants" of any limitations which the law or the necessities of the public service might impose upon them. The Commission thought this rule required no comment. *Ibid.*, p. 8.

Rule 6 provided that the Boards of Examiners upon written request of heads of departments were to hold examinations in anticipation of vacancies, as well as to fill vacancies, and to prepare lists showing the results of the competition. The Commission declared that this "provides a relief against delays" in filling positions. *Ibid.*, p. 8.

Rule 7 permitted the appointment without examination of persons to fiscal positions grouped above the grade of assistant teller, "for whose fidelity another officer has given official bonds." The Commission declared that this rule related "to the important subject of examinations in places beyond Washington." With no provision as yet for holding examinations outside Washington, methods of party and personal politics "gave an undue proportion of offices to importunate men, who linger about Washington and make politics a trade." This rule will, said the Commission, "in a large measure furnish a remedy" for this "evil." The Commission declared that "inadequacy of funds would for the present prevent examinations at places as the reasonable convenience of applicants would require, but relief from this inconvenience rests with Congress." *Ibid.*, p. 8.

Rule 8 permitted appointments at discretion of the appointing officer to fiscal positions vacated because of defalcation or for other emergencies, and those vacan-

"as a method and agency through which the appointing power, without invading the proper functions and influence of parties under republican institutions," it would give its approval. "We are convinced," said the Commission, "that fair public examinations to test the qualifications [of candidates] will receive the permanent support of the people, as against any method of mere personal solicitation or partisan influence for securing office." Exemptions from these "public examinations" included, aside from the President and heads of Departments, "all those high officers who really represent that policy of a party and those principles of a campaign which the people have approved; but by no means those officers and clerks whose tasks should be performed in the same nonpartisan, clerical, and faithful manner, whatever principles may guide and whatever party leaders may control the administration."¹⁷⁸ The Commission concluded with emphasis that "it has been our aim to recognize the right which requires that a victorious party should be able to name the officers so far down the official scale as their principles may justly be involved in fair and honest administration," but at the same time has "resisted the pernicious theory which insists that every clerk, no matter how subordinate or how useful, shall mingle as a partisan in every contest and go out as a matter of course with a retiring head of department."¹⁷⁹

cies which occurred in remote places, if delay in filling them otherwise would injure the public service. The Commission believed that the need for this rule was obvious.

Rule 9 provided for the establishment of five Civil Service Districts composed of such an aggregate of States and Territories that each district would possess as equal a population as possible. The Commission declared this would bring the examination system as near the residences of applicants as current conditions would allow.

Rule 10 officially restored the original name, "Civil Service Commission," as it was before the adoption of the title "Advisory Board of the Civil Service." *Ibid.*, p. 26.

¹⁷⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 6.

¹⁷⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 6. The Commission took pains to point out that it "did not regard the question of the proper duration of the tenure of office or of clerkships, as one with which civil service reform, as now inaugurated, has any other than an indirect connection." *Ibid.*

ESTABLISHMENT OF DISTRICT SYSTEM

THE principal rule, Rule 9, proposed in the Commission's report of June 4, 1873, pertained to establishing five Civil Service Districts. The several States and Territories were grouped so as to divide the total population as equally as possible among these five districts. Each district served as a jurisdiction for holding examinations for admission to the civil service at Washington. Furthermore, it was to be "treated as a sphere of competition, and applicants so residing therein, wherever examined, were regarded as competing only with each other." Applications for examinations for positions at Washington were handled by the department which the applicants desired to enter.

Under the supplementary rules each department was required to maintain a register called "Register of Applicants"¹⁸⁰ and another known as the "Record of Persons Eligible for Appointment," arranged according to districts, based upon the results of examinations. The names of such eligibles were listed "so as to show their relative excellence," except those of "female clerks, copyists, and counters at \$900 a year," who because of their preference in eligibility under Rule 4 were to be entered separately. Appointments were to be made from the three persons graded highest on one of the district registers. Before any examination was held the head of the department requesting the examination was required to supply the Chief Examiner of the Civil Service Commission with the names of persons having previously filed applications for examination for positions in his department. The Chief Examiner would notify by mail each applicant as to time and place of the examination, and an examination would be held for all those so notified.¹⁸¹

¹⁸⁰ It was required that "every application must be dated" and that "the applicant include the name of the town and State or Territory regarded as his legal residence and also the post office address." *Ibid.*, p. 20, Rule 9, part IV, sec. 3.

¹⁸¹ When in its opinion the list of applicants was too long, any departmental examining board could select a "reasonable number" from among them "in order of the

The Chief Examiner, to be appointed by the President, was "subject to the supervision of the Civil Service Commission," and was charged with "promoting uniformity in preparing for, conducting, reporting, and grading the examinations" administered by examining boards in the departments, the districts, and local offices in the various cities. After consultation with the heads of the departments, he was "to prepare, attend, supervise, and report the examinations held elsewhere than at Washington."¹⁸²

The Commission declared that the district system was "initiated in response to a general public demand, and while feeling that its merits can only be determined by actual experiment, it is yet established with entire confidence in its justice and general adaptation to the public convenience." The Commission was quick to say that, with increased appropriations for the civil service, examinations could be held at several places in each district; hence, in a short time "worthy young men in this Country, as in England, would seek to take such examinations for the honor and the business advantages of a public recognition of merit they would demonstrate."¹⁸³ In this way "a public sentiment would be developed which would sternly associate every branch of the public service" with a demand and a recognition of high prestige "from which it has been, in the public estimation, so unfortunately separated."

date of the filing of their applications." The district examining board, composed of the Chief Examiner, or his substitute, and other persons designated by the President (preferably suitable officers of the United States) conducted examinations similar to those conducted by the departmental boards under the rules and regulations. The Chief Examiner reported the results of such examinations to each department and local office, such as New York City with respect to all persons requested by either to be examined. District examinations were not to be held more than twice in any one year, except in Washington where they were held as frequently as required by the heads of departments, subject to the approval of the President. The register of eligibles established was good for only 18 months. Grades below 70 were recorded as "Not Eligible." The Chief Examiner was authorized to hold at least one examination in each district after consultation with the heads of the departments. *Ibid.*, pp. 23-25. Rule 9, part IV, sec. 11-18.

¹⁸² *Ibid.*, p. 21, part VI, sec. 6.

¹⁸³ *Ibid.*, p. 9.

To the Commission this seemed a means of clinching in the public mind the vindication for civil service reform.

REPORT OF APRIL 18, 1874

THE Commission's report of April 18, 1874, may be regarded as its "first annual report." In addition to the commentary on the problems of the civil service, it contains appendices of information about administrative problems and the work of the Commission.¹⁸⁴ Like the report of December 19, 1871, it, too, was unique for its contents. It reflected the vigor with which Eaton, even more than Curtis, pursued his crusade for the improvement of the civil service. Moreover, it was prepared in the manner of a legal brief, treating both legal and political problems. But Grant, in transmitting this report to Congress, damned with faint praise the operation of the civil service rules and asked virtually for only a sustenance for the continuation of the Commission.¹⁸⁵ Though stating that the rules had "resulted beneficially," Grant advised that the same appropriation as before would be "adequate to continue the work in its present form."

Grant's nominal support up to this time of the Commission's work was due to a great

¹⁸⁴ The letter of transmittal to the President described this report as a "further report concerning the proceedings taken under the provisions of the Act of . . . March 3, 1871, for the reform of the civil service of the United States." In addition to a survey of all the problems of the civil service and its administration, it contains several appendices, among which is the report of the Chief Examiner of the Civil Service Commission. Other appendices were: (A) Table showing number of employees by departments and by location; (B) Specimens of examination questions; (C) Specimen questions for a promotion examination; (D) Investigation of a charge against a board of examiners; (E) Excerpts of the President's Messages and Executive Order relating to the civil service; (F) Report of the Chief Examiner of the Civil Service Commission, January 27, 1874; and (G) Opinions of the heads of bureaus and offices to which the rules have been applied. This report is also published as *Sen. Ex. Doc.*, 43 Cong. 1 sess. (1874) 184 pp.

¹⁸⁵ In addition to requesting the same amount as was previously appropriated, he did say, "I think the public interest would be promoted by authority in the Executive for allowing a small compensation for special service performed beyond usual office hours" to the Government members of the Commission and the members of the boards of examiners. Message of the President in *Report of the Civil Service Commission*, April 1874, p. 2.

extent of his fear of the power of the Senate. Until the Senate "gave direct sanction" to the rules affecting the nomination of officers who required its confirmation, he declared that they would remain, "in a great measure impracticable."¹⁸⁶ Eaton was aware of this attitude, of course, and in this report the Commission labored to overcome the political and constitutional problems perennially raised against civil service reform. In brief, this report clearly indicated that a crisis had arisen as to the future of civil service reform.

IN THE Commission's opinion it was not "at liberty to confine this report to the practical details and results of the new system," including such suggestions of improvements as experience had supplied. "We think it our duty, at this time," in view of the "considerable dissent in the public mind" and being "convinced that one of the conditions of success is that the principles of the reform be fully vindicated in the public judgment," to present "in a general way, the reasons, as we understand them, requiring the methods upon which the reform is being conducted." With candor, the Commission said that the continuance or rejection of the civil service methods, which had been "adopted after great deliberation," had "fairly raised" a decisive issue and "ought now to be decided."¹⁸⁷

"The first and more important questions," thought the Commission, were "whether the principles of civil service reform, as sanctioned by the President under the Act of March 3, 1871, are consistent with the Constitution and the national character." And, if so, "whether the essential methods of administration they require are best adapted to promote the welfare of the people." The Commission clearly saw the significance of this dissent. It was whether the Executive or the Congress would be the effective head of federal administration. It

said that "when the theory upon which the Executive is acting is questioned, it would seem to be due, no less to the people than to the President, that the reasons why it has been adopted should be fully presented to the judgment of the people and of Congress." And further; it said that "perhaps a proper regard for the opinions of others also requires an answer to some objections to details, which, indicating much misapprehension, are likely to prejudice the reform in the popular judgment."¹⁸⁸ The Commission declared that it "was manifestly of little importance" to discuss details of administration "if principles and methods themselves" were rejected.¹⁸⁹

THE Act of March 3, 1871, according to the Commission, "implied clearly enough that there were in the opinion of Congress, serious evils of some kind in the methods of filling the official places and conducting the public service, for which Congress had not found a remedy; and it was intended that some more efficient measures of relief should be devised and put in practice under that Act." The Commission believed that without understanding the "nature, origin, and extent of these evils," there could be no appreciation of the proposals for relief against them. Thus at the beginning of its report, the Commission presented its view of them, much of which was explained as concomitant with the evolution of political party practices.¹⁹⁰ The Commission fre-

¹⁸⁶ The creation of the Civil Service Commission by a rider to a much needed appropriation bill caused considerable criticism, much of which imputed a sort of legislative legerdemain on the part of honest advocates of civil service reform. For instance, see speech of Senator Carpenter of Wisconsin, a part of which is summarized in footnote 131, *supra*.

¹⁸⁹ *Ibid.*

¹⁹⁰ The Commission's view of these evils were treated extensively under seven categories, each of which may be summarized as follows: (1) Expansion, "mainly within a single generation," of an "unscrupulous spirit of mercenary partisanship" within the framework of the party organizations, especially in the larger cities where "the banditti of politics and the pawnbrokers of patronage" operate on an extensive scale; (2) The practice of making appointments and removals for personal and profitable motives which cause, among other undesirable things, a tendency for many persons already in the

¹⁸⁶ *Ibid.*

¹⁸⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 7.

quently took pains to declare that it firmly believed in the need and use of political parties, but at the same time said that there were too many unscrupulous persons in party management who had abused their functions.¹⁹¹

The Commission interpreted the Act of March 3, 1871, "as not only expressing a condemnation, on the part of Congress, of the then existing methods of making . . . appointments in the service, but as intended to so re-enforce the constitutional authority of the Executive" to take steps "for the general purpose of improving the civil service." The debates in Congress before the passage of, and in behalf of, the Act, said the Commission, could permit no other understanding. Further, under the "theory of the Constitution," notwithstanding some opinions of the Attorneys General and debates in the Senate on the many conditions to "which civil service rules naturally relate" that would seem to place them within the scope of legislative authority, this Act "made it necessary for us to treat the whole power over the subject [of the civil service] as for the present at least in the President."¹⁹² The Commission

offices to avoid a proper discharge of their duties for fear of "offending the rising man of politics or the powerful rings of influence;" (3) Development of a combined force of persons in the government who, "being least faithful to the high principles and duties of a political party," were through political machinations "confounding and defeating the distinct and different authority and responsibility of the legislative and executive departments so carefully separated and guarded by the Constitution;" (4) Activity of partisan manipulators in using federal power of office "for the purpose of interference with the independence of State politics;" (5) Inability of the President and the Congress to discharge properly their constitutional duties under the prevailing conditions of patronage practices; (6) Inculcation in the public attitude that positions in the public service are "more easily gained by servility" than by "establishing character which give capacity to serve the nation;" and (7) Inculcation in the public mind that "political morality is inferior to private morality" and that, among other views, "it is more safe and less wicked to deceive and pillage the people, as a whole, than any one of them." *Report of the Civil Service Commission*, April 1874, pp. 10-16.

¹⁹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 21-33.
¹⁹² *Report of the Civil Service Commission*, April 1874, pp. 19-20. The Commission cited in support of its views the opinion of Chief Justice Marshall and several opinions of the Attorneys General (*Maurice v. United States*, 2 Brockenborough R., 101; 4 Op. Atty. Gen., 164; 11 Op. Atty. Gen., 212; 13 Op. Atty. Gen., 516).

continued: "We felt bound to regard the further fact that, by the Constitution, the only direct participation allowed to the legislative department in the matter of appointments is . . . the Senate alone" and hence under any rules to be devised the Commission "could not act upon any suggestion in the nature of giving a participation in appointments to the other House of Congress or to any other offices."¹⁹³ One further question under the Constitution might present itself again: whether discretion of the appointing power might be limited to a small number of predetermined eligibles. But this question, the Commission believed, had already been settled by an opinion of the Attorney General of August 31, 1871, which had also been settled similarly in England.¹⁹⁴

PUBLIC RELATIONS PROBLEMS

MAINTENANCE of public relations also concerned the Commission—not only to guard against the "highly organized natural enemies" of reform, but as a matter of necessity to help a generation unaccustomed to putting "a restraint upon the selfish use of party power." "Public sentiment," it said, was a matter "to which we ought fairly to respond: for if a reform is pitched too low for public opinion it will fall beneath general contempt, and if too high, it will find an atmosphere too rare to give it support." The Commission believed that the struggle for civic reform had presented a dilemma from which it had extricated itself properly. On the one hand, there were persons "who demanded reform" only by those slow and sure results of higher and larger teaching—intellectual, moral, and religious—which yield fruit only in the next generation; and, on the other, the "doctrinaires in theory and perfectionists in method, disdain all at-

¹⁹³ *Ibid.*, p. 20. The Commission did not overlook the congressional alternative provision of vesting portions of the appointing power in some other officer in the executive departments or in the courts of law permitted under Article II, section 2, of the Constitution. *Ibid.*, pp. 59-70.

¹⁹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 20. For this opinion see 13 Op. Atty. Gen., 516; for a summary, see Part I of this article, *Public Personnel Review*, January 1942, p. 38.

tempts which, from the first, are not as broad as the spread of our evils and as deep as their source."

Its decision, said the Commission, was "to proceed along the middle ground of practical reform" and bring to "this generation," by better methods, "more worth, now confined to private life, into the public service." Thus from the outset the Commission said it could not expect widespread success in civil service reform. "Real programs" must come first in "better political education," and as a matter of course "better practical results" would come later.

"What consideration the rules and regulations, or the theory of reform we might adopt should have for those belonging to the party in power," said the Commission, "was a question of no small difficulty." It felt most bound to regard that larger portion of public opinion "expressed through the great party in power." Yet the Commission declared that "the reform of the civil service is a subject higher than party, and, in theory, that reform aims at making the interest of the nation paramount to all mere party considerations, by bringing into public places those most worthy to serve and represent the whole people, irrespective of party opinions." Therefore subject matter for rules and regulations stemmed from the realization that "in politics, as in morals and religion, the ideal standard is far above practical reality;" and in making such rules, to "accept human nature as found" with the view to determining "to what standard of liberality and qualifications" each generation will approve.¹⁹⁵

THE problem of political party consideration in a civil service system was resolved by the Commission in the acceptance of a distribution of the appointing power. This was on the assumption that the political party was not essentially evil, but an instrument through which "wholesome expression of public opinion" may be had. The

political party in fact, declared the Commission, was the only thing by which alone the "political machinery of the country could be operated." The need for effectiveness was restraint. Every political party has its selfish and unprincipled groups. "These are condemned by the people and ought to be limited."

The Commission regarded as equally impracticable the theorists "so stern as to claim that there should be no officers selected to represent the opinion and policy of the party coming into power," and the partisans "so unreasonable as to demand that upon accession to power," every officer and employee "should be driven from their places." Therefore, the Commission concluded: "The line must then be drawn somewhere, below which party policy and opinions are not most important, but above which certain views of policy and politics may be essential."¹⁹⁶

The practical problems that had to be solved, in the Commission's opinion were not the introduction of "any new theory into the Constitution," or "any new function among duties" of appointing officials, but "merely to supply increased facilities for performing the same duties," as were performed in the years before "the civil service and the business of the nation became so vast and complex."¹⁹⁷

ESSENTIAL CONDITIONS OF REFORM

IN THE Commission's judgment, several conditions were essential to making an effective civil service system. The real problem upon which depended the ultimate success of the reform was thus stated: "How most surely and beneficially to advance the worthy private citizen to a public position, and to make him most useful to the people while in that position." The report enumerates eighteen essential conditions which are summarized and identified as follows:

(1) Persons with suitable capacity to have equal opportunity to serve in the public service; (2) re-

¹⁹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 21.

¹⁹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 22.

¹⁹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 23.

straints of opinion and influence in appointments; (3) removal of political brokers; (4) executive power to be used in its "constitutional regard to personal fitness;" (5) senators to abandon the treating of nominations requiring confirmation as an individual prerogative; (6) abolition of the practice of Congressmen "to dictate appointments in or from their districts;" (7) discretion of heads of departments "in making appointments or promotions ought to be so qualified as to give more protection to merit;" (8) cessation of levying political assessments and limitations on influence of partisan groups; (9) adaptation of tests for determining personal qualifications; (10) administration of tests by persons not connected with appointments or promotions; (11) permission of "legitimate scope and freedom to the principles and policy of parties;" (12) development of conditions tending to keep the good employees longer in office; (13) development of a system of impartial examinations in accordance with practical requirements of the positions; (14) "within certain limits," promotion of employees from within to higher positions after examination; (15) women and men to be tested by the same examinations; (16) apportionment of employees among the several states to be left to executive discretion and the needs of the public service; (17) prohibition of members of the Commission or anyone under its supervision, to influence the appointments process other than in "justly examining and fairly certifying" results of examinations; and (18) prohibiting the Commission or anyone under its supervision to "have any regard for, or make any inquiry about," the political opinions of applicants.¹⁹⁸

The Commission made it plain that these conditions for conducting civil service reform "would require on the part of all those having the appointing power and more especially on the part of the President, a constant regard for the merits of the individual and for the welfare of the public service, to the exclusion of that arbitrary discretion of favoritism, which for a whole generation had been so much practiced." Emphatically, the Commission declared that "it could not be disguised that the decisive conditions of success were in the patriotism and the persistent resolution of the President."¹⁹⁹

¹⁹⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 27-29. With reference to the last condition enumerated, the Commission said that "so far as may be just or wise, the right of making such discrimination belongs wholly to the appointing power." *Ibid.*, p. 29.

¹⁹⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 29-31. The report refers to Grant as the "first President who ever dared attempt such a reform, who was ever willing to surrender so many powers of favoritism." *Ibid.*, p. 31.

RESTATEMENT OF RULES IN FORCE

IN VIEW of accumulated experience, it now seemed desirable to the Commission to bring the whole series of rules, those approved on December 19, 1871, and as amended April 16, 1872, and their supplements promulgated August 5, 1873, "into a clear, methodical, and convenient arrangement for general circulation." As an introduction to this need, the report of April 18, 1874 included a summary statement of the substance of the provisions of these rules with a commentary on the manner of their administration. The texts of the rules were not included, except in a few instances.

For the purpose of the rules, the Commission considered the civil service as embracing all officials and employees in the service of the federal government in any civil capacity. These were divided into four groups as follows:

1. Officers elected²⁰⁰
2. Employees below the grade of regular clerks²⁰¹
3. Higher officers representing the policy of the dominant party, judicial officers, and a few others too miscellaneous to be classified²⁰²

²⁰⁰ The rules, said the Commission, obviously did not apply with reference to their selection, but were applicable only in a limited manner to the duties of such officers. *Ibid.*, p. 32.

²⁰¹ Those in the second division, "being largely mere laborers and having only a temporary employment, are for plain reasons, almost wholly excluded" from operation of the rules. *Ibid.*, p. 32.

²⁰² Most of the officers in this division were included in Rule 13, and were excluded from the operation of the rules. Many of them "standing for the policy and principles of the party in power, may with propriety go in and out with an administration." Others occupied places of "peculiar confidence or of such prominence that due attention is sure to be extended to their selection." In this group were also excepted: cashiers and custodians of money for whose fidelity bonds are given, positions in which emergencies arise, persons in the secret service, stenographers, and a few others "to whom peculiar reasons of policy or practicability apply." *Ibid.*, p. 32. See also Rule 5, approved December 19, 1871 and Rule 7, approved August 5, 1873.

The Commission said that the relation of the Senate to many positions in this group introduced complications. "It is obvious that, as to any office for which the nominee requires confirmation by the Senate," the President was unable "to carry out the spirit of the rule beyond the point where the cooperation of that body begins." *Ibid.*, pp. 32-33.

4. The "residue of the civil service," comprising the great body of the subordinate officers and clerks "by which the federal administration is carried on," which in number was about 25,000, not including postmasters.²⁰³

Then the Commission proceeded to restate how the rules were applied with respect to eligibility for federal employment,²⁰⁴ admission to the service at the lowest class, employment of women, promotion within the service, conduct of examinations in Washington and the field, probationary appointments, deportment in office,²⁰⁵ political assessments, and certain exceptions to the rules.²⁰⁶ These restatements, mostly drawn from the Regulations of April 16, 1872 and the Report and Rules of August 3, 1873, were enumerated under twenty-two articles. This, in brief, was the framework of what the Commission said were "the principles and methods with which the President has attempted to improve the civil service."²⁰⁷

²⁰³ The fourth division included the greatest portion of the civil service, "to which the rules so far as extended, in principle apply." Of this portion there were about 5,500 in Washington and 2,500 in New York City. "These are places," said the Commission, "under the rules of competition about which the great struggle for patronage goes on and the great abuses gather." *Ibid.*, p. 33.

²⁰⁴ Regulation No. 1 of those promulgated April 16, 1872, provided, in addition to the general qualifications for admission to the federal civil service as enumerated in Rule 1, adopted December 19, 1871, that each person so appointed must "furnish satisfactory evidence of his fidelity to the Union and the Constitution of the United States." Curtis proposed this regulation on March 12, 1872. In his draft, he had the last phrase originally to read "fidelity to the Union and the Government of the United States." The *Minutes* do not indicate who suggested this change in phraseology. See *Minutes*, p. 133, March 12, 1872; also see *supra*, footnote 163.

²⁰⁵ The prohibition of holding state and federal offices at the same time by federal employees was not made under the civil service rules, but under the Executive Order of January 17, 1873, as amended January 28, 1873.

²⁰⁶ *Report of the Civil Service Commission*, April 1874, pp. 33-40.

²⁰⁷ See *supra*, footnotes 150-63; 177-81.

E. O. Graves, the chief examiner, submitted to the Commission on April 3, 1873, a proposed compilation of the rules of the civil service, "codified and arranged in logical order." In the introduction Graves says that the proposal was "put in type simply for convenience of consideration, not for publication." See "Elliott Papers" for a galley copy.

The positions to which the rules applied were divided, according to Graves, into three divisions: "First Division embraces the positions to which the general principle without examination applies; Second Division, those to

RESULTS OF THE CIVIL SERVICE SYSTEM

INASMUCH as the civil service rules were under heavy attack in Congress, Eaton obtained the President's consent to address a request to the heads of bureaus and offices with regard to an expression of their experience under the operation of the rules. In his letter Eaton said that the President "will expect that the Commission should state generally the manner and results" of the rules.²⁰⁸ Thus the Commission reported that, while it thought the rules would require some modification, the heads of the bureaus generally regarded them "as a success." The rules, according to the summarized responses of the heads of the bureaus, were reported as having "promoted the public interests in various particulars." Among the effects which the rules had brought about were: better qualified personnel and more efficient workers; reduced political activity and pressures for promotions; and better conditions for conduct of the public business.²⁰⁹

The Commission, doubtlessly motivated by Eaton, presented an "alternative method of reform to that adopted by the President." This was a consideration with regard to giving "the absolute right of nomination of officers and clerks to members of Congress." It was considered and obviously rejected because already "the general abuse of a mingling of legislative and executive functions," was the evil against which civil service reform was aimed. The report proceeded with answers to the objections of further control over the personnel in the executive departments, injecting replies to points that had been frequently raised by defenders of patronage.

which the principle of competitive examination applies; and Third Division, those to which the principle of examination without strict competition applies." Within each division the appropriate rules and regulations were grouped as best related. Graves pointed out that the "distinction at first made between 'rules' and 'regulations' had not been retained." ("Elliott Papers," vol. I, p. 164 ff.) This codification appears never to have been made public.

²⁰⁸ *Ibid.*, Appendix G, p. 146.

²⁰⁹ These views of the heads of the bureaus are summarized and included in the report. *Ibid.*, pp. 42-59. The complete statements are compiled in *Appendix G*, *Ibid.*, pp. 146-84.

The report also presented a defense of the President as the natural head of administration as intended by the Constitution. The Commission, in conclusion, regarded its objection to this alternative method of reforming the civil service as "so plain and decisive" that it felt like apologizing for the space their discussion had taken in the report. However, "if the public mind can be convinced," because of such presentation of reasons, "that no other system is available," it will be "a great gain for the system adopted by the President."²¹⁰

OUTLOOK FOR THE FUTURE

THE Commission, with these and other objections answered,²¹¹ regarded the entire situation for the advancement of civil service reform as follows: Competitive examinations had been proved practicable;²¹² such examinations recruited a better class of persons; promotional examinations prevented "favoritism and discouragement;" further supervision by the Commission was necessary to secure appropriate adoption of the "principles of the new system;" the con-

tinuation of the appropriation of \$25,000 was necessary and should be expressed "in such language as to leave no doubt among the people that Congress intends a full and fair trial of the reform;" and the direct action of Congress to make the new system binding upon Grant's successors. The Commission in closing the report expressed its convictions in the words of Vice-President Wilson: "There is a feeling in this country, founded in reason, comprehending the best interests of the country, which demands reform in the civil service."²¹³

At the close of the first report of the Civil Service Commission Curtis wrote that "the improvement of the civil service is emphatically the people's cause, the people's reform, and the administration which vigorously begins it will acquire a glory only less than that of the salvation of a free Union." This political significance, however, weighed little upon management of either the Republican or Democratic parties.

The introduction of civil service bills had brought continuous derision from the outset. Both parties, in Congress and elsewhere, snorted at them with scorn and rage. In the long and numerous speeches against civil service reform, the rules and regulations of the Civil Service Commission were called, among other things, silly, cumbrous, unconstitutional, impracticable, visionary, absurd, "hostile to the genius of our institutions," productive of an aristocracy, fatal to the ascendancy of any administration party, and a proposal to run the Government by "a board of broken down schoolmasters."

The efforts of the Civil Service Commission were repeatedly subjected to the contempt of the Republican politicians. They facetiously agreed with Senator Morton of

²¹⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 59-70. In connection with the nomination of persons, after examination as provided by the rules, to positions requiring Senate confirmation, the report pointed out that unless the Senate acted upon the same theory as was expected of the President under the rules, the latter was in the difficult position of being "compelled to withdraw his nominee or to unduly press a confirmation." This had been, said the Commission, "the main source of difficulty in most of the cases in which it has been declared that the President has not conformed to the rules as they are interpreted by those who have made charges that the President has not been faithful to the spirit of his own rules." *Ibid.*, pp. 88-89.

²¹¹ The Commission also answered objections "so often urged by persons of candor." These were opinions to the effect that: Governmental business should be conducted like that of any large business house or corporation; civil service rules would establish a bureaucracy of officeholders; civil service rule would destroy political parties; machinery was substituted for discretion of individuals; college graduates would be favored over the less educated; pass examinations were more satisfactory; the examination system would involve too much cost. *Ibid.*, pp. 70-89.

²¹² The chief examiner, E. O. Graves, on January 27, 1874, presented an elaborate report of the operation of the examination system inaugurated under the rules. The Commission, in its report, regarded Graves as having "performed his duties with great efficiency." *Ibid.*, p. 40. Graves' report is entitled *Report of the Chief Examiner to the Civil Service Commission*, January 27, 1874, 52 pp. It is also included in the Commission's report of April 18, 1872 as Appendix F, pp. 102-46.

²¹³ Quoted from speech in the Senate, January 1871. Cited in *Report of Civil Service Commission*, April 1874, p. 91. This report was signed by all except Cattell who was in Europe. Samuel Shellabarger (1817-1896), who replaced Medill was the only appointee other than Eaton up to the dissolution of the Commission. His career is summarized: lawyer and politician, member of Congress from Ohio, 1867-63, 1865-69, 1871-73. He introduced in 1871 what was known as the "Ku Klux Law;" Minister to Portugal, 1869-1871; while a member of the Commission, practiced law in Washington.

Indiana that the civil service of the United States was "the best upon the planet" and always applauded the assaults of Roscoe Conkling on reform and reformers. Of the latter Conkling repeatedly shouted: "Their real object is office and power."²¹⁴ The Democrats in the Federal Government, who had been a hopeless minority until 1874 because of the Civil War, did not differ particularly in attitude toward civil service reform from the Republican spoilsmen. Until then their activity had been confined to regaining a foothold in local and state governments in the South. Like the Republicans, they were without clean hands. In national politics they had a political advantage over the Republicans for their plundering of the public had occurred mostly in certain cities, notably in New York where the "Tweed Ring" had become notorious. Thus they denounced Republican corruption, but offered no effective remedy. But whether the harangue against civil service reform was either Republican or Democratic, the tenor of denunciation had the same ring.²¹⁵

THE operation of the rules and regulations had barely got under way when dissatisfaction among the Republicans broke out into open revolt against the Administration. Under the label of Liberal Republicans, several prominent persons and political

leaders, including Schurz, Trumbull of Illinois, and Charles Frances Adams of Massachusetts, called a national convention with the view to ending the Administration's abuse of public affairs and espousing, among other things, the reform of the civil service. Their platform injected the issue of civil service reform into national politics for the first time.²¹⁶ However, the convention, which met in Cincinnati May 1872, did the unexpected and nominated Horace Greeley of New York.²¹⁷ Then, paradoxically, the Democrats, together with the Liberal Republicans, accepted him as their Presidential nominee.

The regular Republicans in 1872 were not to be outdone in platform resolutions. They too "favored" civil service reform but hedged on the tenure of office question.²¹⁸ The campaign of 1872 was relentlessly personal. Greeley's previous attitude on public questions made the campaign an unusual spectacle. Grant's military services were portrayed in contrast to Greeley's eccentricities. The campaign turned on the ridiculous: Greeley, as a protectionist, leading the tariff revisionists; as a patronage defender, leading the civil service reformers; and as an

²¹⁶ The Liberal Republican platform contained this plank: "The civil service of the Government has become a mere instrument of partisan tyranny and personal ambition, and an object of selfish greed. It is a scandal and reproach upon free institutions, and breeds a demoralization dangerous to the perpetuity of republican government. We therefore regard a thorough reform of the civil service as one of the most pressing necessities of the hour."

²¹⁷ "A worse nomination than that of Greeley could not have been made. Although he ardently desired the termination of misrule in the South . . . , he was known to be a devotee of the spoils system, and a defender of the high protective tariff. Moreover, despite his abilities as editor of the *New York Tribune*, he was erratic and capricious in his judgments of men and policies." Louis M. Hacker and B. B. Kendrick, *The United States Since 1865* (3 ed., 1941) pp. 53-54; see also S. E. Morison and H. S. Commager, *The Growth of the American Republic* (1940) vol. 2, pp. 69-76; Hesselstine, *op. cit.*, pp. 269-90.

²¹⁸ The Republican platform of 1872 reads as follows: "Any system of the civil service under which the subordinate positions of the Government are considered rewards for mere party zeal is fatally demoralizing, and we therefore favor a reform of the system of laws which shall abolish the evils of patronage and make honesty, efficiency, and fidelity the essential qualifications for public positions, without practically creating a life tenure of office."

²¹⁴ Conkling often charged the civil service reformers with ulterior motives. Once he said: "Some of them are man-milliners, the dilettante and carpet knights of politics, men whose efforts have been expended in denouncing and ridiculing and accusing honest men. . . . They are wolves in sheep's clothing. Their real object is office and plunder." Quoted, Charles A. and Mary R. Beard, *The Rise of American Civilization* (1930), vol. 2, p. 551.

²¹⁵ J. B. Beck, Democrat from Kentucky, Representative, 1867-1875 and Senator, 1877-1890, speaking on the Commission's report of April 18, 1874, typified the Democratic attacks: "The practical operation of the system has been simply to relieve the heads of departments from the responsibility for the misconduct of their officers. . . . I want no middle-man, no go-between, no fossils, ignorant of the services required . . . to determine what pet of theirs shall fill positions of honor, profit or trust. They are humbugs, and the system is worse than that. . . . It has, as administered, proved to be a miserable failure." *Congressional Record*, 43 Cong. 1 sess., June 11, 1874, p. 4895.

anti-Democrat, leading the Democrats. Grant won overwhelmingly. In the House, the Republican majority was raised from 35 to 105. Thus Grant and his supporters, who were the cause of the Liberal Republican protest, believed they had been endorsed by the electorate.

Grant was throughout his two administrations preoccupied with reconstruction policies. On top of these came the monetary issues growing out of the panic of 1873. The Radical Republicans from the outset of his régime sought to continue their harshness toward the South. Other party programs remained over-shadowed. Although elected on a reform program, including a promise about civil service reform, Grant did nothing about it until after the election of 1870 in which the Republicans suffered losses in Congress. Grant's Secretary of the Interior, Jacob D. Cox, and Secretary of the Treasury George S. Boutell sought in the summer of 1870 some reform in their departments by ordering competitive examinations for certain positions. Cox's departmental order was too inclusive and led to his resignation in November 1870.²¹⁹

Notwithstanding the Republican machine opposition to civil service reform, Grant for over three years submitted requests for adequate legislation and support for an improved civil service. This he did more by compulsion than otherwise because of the sheer force of the reformers who were greater in clamor than in numbers. These requests were perfunctory, more laudatory than mandatory. Beginning with his annual message December 1870, Grant asked Congress for a law to "govern, not the tenure, but the manner of making appointments." In his transmittal of the Commission's report of December 19, 1871, he asked "for all the strength which Congress can give" him. But Congress gave little other than \$10,000.²²⁰ Again, in an Executive Order of

April 16, 1872, promulgating the rules and regulations, he requested the "utmost fidelity and diligence of all officers in every branch of the public service." Congress appropriated \$25,000 to carry on the work of the Commission for the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1872.²²¹

FOLLOWING his re-inauguration, Grant in his annual message December 1872, recommended that, on behalf of the Commission's work, Congress establish a special committee of its own to "confer with the Civil Service Board during the [present] session for the purpose of devising such rules as can be maintained and which will secure the services of honest and capable officials and which will also protect them in a degree of independence while in office." Such rules, he said, would "protect Congress, as well as the Executive, from much needless persecution, and will prove of great value to the public at large." This suggestion was ignored. Congress had on the eve of his second inauguration reappropriated the unexpended portion of the previous appropriation "to enable the President to perfect and put in force such rules regulating the civil service as may from time to time be adopted by him."²²²

The Commission's report of April 18, 1874 was a monumental effort on its part to continue with "the reform of the civil service of the United States." It had been prepared with a view to obtaining Congressional support for the next fiscal year. All the exhortation in the Commission's report went unheeded, including Grant's request for "only such appropriation as may be adequate to continue the work [of the Commission] in its present form." During the consideration of the appropriation, the House voted favorably on the repeal of the Act of March 3, 1871, while the Senate voted \$15,000 to continue the Commission's work. The two houses failed to concur, thus leav-

²¹⁹ Cox became afterwards critical of Grant's procrastination in civil service reform. See Part I of this article, *Public Personnel Review*, January 1942, p. 32, footnote 19.

²²⁰ Act of April 20, 1871, 17 Stat. 7.

²²¹ Act of May 8, 1872, 17 Stat. 82.

²²² Act of March 3, 1873, 17 Stat. 530. This was \$21,263.04. See "Elliott Papers," vol. 1, p. 259 ff.

ing the law upon the statutes, but with no appropriation to administer it.²²³

Finally, after the Republicans had lost the House to the Democrats in the Congressional election, Grant announced in his annual message of December 1874: "If Congress adjourns without positive legislation on the subject of 'civil service' reform, I will regard such action as a disapproval of the system and will abandon it." The Republicans took no action, despite the fact that they had suffered defeat at the polls.²²⁴

GRANT ABANDONS THE RULES

IMMEDIATELY following the final adjournment of Congress, March 3, 1875, Grant at a Cabinet meeting, March 9, 1875, abandoned the civil service rules and ordered the abolition of the examining boards throughout the country. Each Cabinet member was to issue a notice to this effect. In a letter March 9, 1875, to Charles Lyman, Chairman of the Board of Examiners, Treasury Department, Secretary of the Treasury H. B. Bristow wrote: "By direction of the President the rules and regulations known as Civil Service Rules . . . governing appointments and promotions under the Treasury, are hereby abolished, and hereafter all appointments will be made as provided by Section 164 of the Revised Statutes.²²⁵ Other instructions in this letter pertained to the "transfer of all books, papers, and property" of the Board of Examiners to the Chief Clerk of the Department and also the reporting of all clerks and

employees of this board to the Chief Clerk "for assignment to duty."²²⁶ Thus ended the first experiment "in the reform of the Civil Service of the United States."²²⁷

"THE CIVIL SERVICE EXPERIMENT"

IN A paper before American Social Science Association, May 14, 1875, Eaton said in his introduction: "The Administration—the party in power—the nation—have made an experiment of Civil Service Reform, and amid all the abuses, only diminished, it has been abandoned. The fair field of reform is deformed, obstructed, darkened by the somber ruin of this disastrous, humiliating experiment."²²⁸ The work of the Commission was frequently called, by both friends and opponents, an "experiment." Grant also often spoke of it as a "trial."

In his long introduction, Eaton presented the abandonment of the civil service rules as a "triumph of evil over good." Eaton said: "In short . . . the abandonment of the civil service rules were without justifiable excuse, involving a breach of a public pledge, and are a national disgrace."²²⁹ In the presentation of his defense Eaton charged intrigue, duplicity, hypocrisy, all manner of wicked designs on the managers of the Re-

²²³ Letter to Lyman from Bristow, March 9, 1875. "Elliott Papers," vol. I, p. 251.

²²⁷ The Commission held a few meetings after its report of April 18, 1874. Minutes of these meetings as taken are brief and disclosed little or nothing. Minutes of meetings, dating from March 17, 1874 to May 28, 1874, are copied in an unnamed volume of Minutes, not heretofore cited; Minutes of meetings dating after May 28, 1874 up to September 23, 1874, are only brief statements, mainly citing a date of a session of the Commission. For the last meeting, as of a record, E. B. Elliott sends a telegram, September 22, 1874, to Cattell: "Shellabarger here—Eaton coming tomorrow [September 23]—Come without fail." The Minutes taken do not indicate what transpired at this last meeting. "Elliott Papers," vol. I, *passim*.

²²⁸ Quoted in unsigned article, "The Civil Service Experiment," *The Republic*, vol. IV, no. 6, June 1875, p. 329 (This magazine, an Administration organ, treats the effort at reform in defense of Grant's policy and attitude, pp. 329–36).

²²⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 329. The rebuttal to Eaton's introduction stated: "No one who has examined this experiment, studied its progress, and noted its many serious defects, can endorse the above statement of Mr. Eaton. Like other enthusiastic individuals, bent on reform, he has fallen into the grave error of believing that his plan and his plan only, is the true one, and as a logical sequence, all others must be false." *Ibid.*

²²⁴ See *Congressional Record*, 43 Cong., 1 sess., June 11, 1874, pp. 4888–4896.

²²⁵ Before the Congressional election, Congress had recognized the civil service rules after its refusal to continue appropriations for the Commission. In the War Department where a reduction of force was required, Congress directed that enlisted men "so retained" to be placed upon the civil list, "so as to entitle them to promotion under the civil service regulations." 19 Stat. 101 (June 20, 1874).

²²⁶ "No clerk shall be appointed in any Departments in either of the four classes [Act of 1853] . . . until he has been examined and found qualified by a board of examiners, to consist of the chief of the bureau or office into which such clerk is to be appointed and two other clerks to be selected by the head of the department." Sec. 164, *Rev. Stat.*

publican party because they saw in the reform movement "the death of their mercenary ambition." The *Republic* replied that "if the state of public demoralization" was what Eaton said it was, "it will be news to most of the people." Further, it said that the "civil service system failed because it lacked the merit to make it a success."²³⁰ It was found, after a fair trial by those who were friendly to it, to be, not only expensive,²³¹ but in its leading features impracticable." If continued, it said, "it would have established a bureaucracy more potent in its influence for evil than the so-called spoils system."

The *Republic* cited what it regarded as the defective features of the reform: First, the examinations were impracticable for they called for the "man who could answer more technical questions than his competitors and on this fact alone, he is presumed to be the best man for the service." This alone, said the *Republic*, was not enough. There was need for appraising experience and honesty.²³² Second, it prevented polit-

ical assessments. It denied that political assessments were paid in fear of dismissal or were contributed for obtaining jobs. Third, too much delay occurred in holding examinations for filling vacancies. Fourth, older employees could not successfully compete with the younger in promotional examinations.²³³ The *Republic*, as typical of all defenders of the patronage system, said that "the civil service of the United States under the old system of appointments, with all of its defects, is equal, in point of integrity and capacity, to any in the world. It has suffered some from speculation and fraud, but the percentage of loss to the Government has been extremely small."²³⁴

THE work of the Civil Service Commission, aside from the rules it originated and prescribed, was aimed against the accepted practice of regarding public office as a marketable commodity of the party in power. This change in concept was inspired by middle-class notions, rather than by labor, agrarian, or revolutionary ideas. Thus these reformers regarded this demand as a second emancipation, releasing from political manipulation the major portion of the public offices and opening them only to per-

²³⁰ At its last appropriation consideration, S. W. Kellogg, Republican of Connecticut, in the House, almost the only defender of the Commission's report of April 18, 1874, said: "Notwithstanding all that has been said in newspapers and on this floor in derision of this attempt at reform, no man can read the report of the Civil Service Commission . . . without being satisfied that much good has already been accomplished." *Congressional Record*, 43 Cong., 1 sess., June 11, 1874, p. 4889.

²³¹ The appropriations for the Civil Service Commission are set forth below:

Fiscal year	Amount
1871-1872	\$10,000
1872-1873	25,000
1873-1874	*
1874-1875	None

* The unexpended portion of the previous year was reappropriated. See footnote 223.

The expenditures were as below:

Fund	Date	Amount
\$10,000	April 1871 to July 1, 1875	\$ 7,287.50
25,000	July 1, 1872 to July 1, 1875	17,364.64
\$35,000		\$24,652.14

Monies carried to the surplus fund were \$10,347.36, of which \$1,529.20 were returned on July 1, 1874. The remaining \$8,818.66 were covered into the Treasury on June 30, 1876. "Elliott Papers," vol. III, unpaginated, near end of volume.

²³² The Commission's regulations governing admission to the service in Class One required a written examination upon the following subjects: (1) penman-

ship, (2) writing and briefing letters, (3) elements of English grammar, (4) arithmetic, (5) bookkeeping, (6) history and geography, and (7) prominent features of the government of the United States. See part VIII, *Regulations Governing Admission to the Departments*, May 14, 1872, p. 4. Typical questions in history, government and geography for Class One clerkship (\$1,200): "Who was the first Vice President?" "In what does treason against the United States consist?" "By whom was Quebec captured during the old French war?" "Name the two largest lakes lying entirely within the limits of the United States." *Report of the Chief Examiner* January 27, 1874, p. 29.

²³³ "The Civil Service Experiment" *loc. cit.*, pp. 334-36. The Commission's regulations governing promotions provided for a combination of general subjects fixed for Class one clerkships and other subjects on "the general nature of the business of the Department, and the special nature of the position to be filled." See part II, *Regulations Governing Examinations for Promotion*, May 12, 1872, p. 1.

²³⁴ "The Civil Service Experiment" *loc. cit.*, p. 331. The references Grant made to the expressions "honesty" and "efficiency" in Executive Orders and messages to Congress were, thought Godkin, "strange things to be said in state documents, and ones "which the future student of our history will not skip as dull reading." *Nation*, vol. 14, April 25, 1872, p. 270.

sons of demonstrated fitness selected by objective standards.²³⁵

This attack of the civil service reformers on the traditional practices of the patronage system was not premeditated. After the promulgation of the rules and regulations in 1872, Curtis said that "there was not [before], and is not now, any objection to the theory of the present system of appointment." He declared that "if the appointing power would take care already to select honest and fit officers, nothing more could be asked, except that they should be retained so long as honesty and efficiency remained." But, as he contended, "the practices under all parties had become what everybody familiar with the facts knows" them to be otherwise. Neither Curtis nor the other reformers maintained, as their opponents insisted, that the competitive examination was the complete alternative. They admitted, as did Curtis, that "any kind of independent examination might be very imperfect, but it could not possibly be so absurd as the existing [spoils] practices."²³⁶

The fact that both the Republican and Democratic conventions of 1872 endorsed the idea of civil service reform did not preclude the necessity for further efforts on the part of the reformers. Curtis said that despite the endorsement of these two conventions "no working politician of either party wants" reform in the civil service.²³⁷

Neither Curtis nor Eaton had any notion of taking away from the party in power the functions of the political party, as each so regarded them that determining of public

policy and the supervision of its execution. As believers in political parties they sought to assure the continuance of their "proper functions." Each possessed the idea that positions by nature were either political or ministerial, chiefly the latter. Their classification of positions, developed more fully by Eaton, was a scheme of recognized relationships between the legislative and executive departments whereby the higher administrative positions would be filled by persons in direct sympathy with the political decisions of the party in power. Thus, in classifying the positions, they sought to determine which were policy deciding in character and to exempt them from the open competitive examination system. The coverage of positions under a competitive examination system was less inclusive under the rules and regulations prescribed during the chairmanship of Curtis²³⁸ than those during that of Eaton.²³⁹ Curtis was convinced that the public sentiment would be "more satisfied with a limited but effective reform" than by an inadequate effort at universal application."²⁴⁰ Eaton, on the other hand, while also of this opinion, sought to put into practice as soon as possible the full implications of civil service reform.

THE end of the "civil service experiment" did not bring as much disappointment and chagrin to Curtis as it did to Eaton. Curtis wrote after its abandonment that "the friends of a reasonable system need not despair. The result of the effort of the last four years has [brought] a general awakening of the public mind." It was not one, he concluded, "which will be forgotten, for the evils of the present practices, constantly increasing . . . , will press more and more for

²³⁵ Cf. Beard and Beard *op. cit.*, vol. II, p. 550. See also Brogan *op. cit.*, pp. 183-99; 260-72. Curtis wrote, shortly after Grant approved the system of rules December 19, 1871, that: "It abolishes patronage; throws open offices to competitors . . . through searching examinations; gives the place to the best man; secures it to him during good conduct . . . ; disregards a candidate's politics; does not appoint him for service to the party; does not tax him for campaign expenses, nor asks him for his support." *Harper's Weekly*, January 13, 1872, p. 26.

²³⁶ *Harpers Weekly*, vol. 16, p. 522, July 6, 1872. Curtis was convinced that "however the politicians theorize about [the examination system], the experience of other countries in its favor was conclusive." *Ibid.*

²³⁷ *Ibid.*

²³⁸ In his report covering the final drafting of the regulations promulgated April 16, 1872, Curtis said that the recommendations were "tentative only." Experimentation would gradually develop "an improved system" for the civil service. See footnote 163.

²³⁹ Cf. *Report of the Civil Service Commission*, December 1871, p. 21; the Rules approved December 19, 1871; the *Report of the Civil Service Commission* April 1874, pp. 27-33; and the Rules, as modified.

²⁴⁰ See footnote 163.

decisive action."²⁴¹ Eaton called this abandonment a "breach of a public pledge" and a "national disgrace." Although Eaton heaped the greater responsibility of this failure upon Congress, and at first defended Grant's activity in its behalf, he felt that Grant had faltered, for he neither "had the zeal, the self denial, and the persistency of the true reformer," nor the will to resist "the power of its adversaries."²⁴² But like Curtis, Eaton was undiscouraged for, despite the dissolution of the rules, he considered himself still the Chairman of the Civil Service Commission and continued to work assiduously for reform in the civil service which culminated in his drafting of the Civil Service Act of 1883 and his service as the first chairman under that Act.²⁴³

Grant's abandonment of civil service reform was not given banner headlines in the newspapers. It was not strictly news, for Grant, as the newspapers knew, had in practice already done so. However, despite the agitation over Butler's Force Bill and the Louisiana election cases, influential journals which at the outset did so much for civil service reform but later became dubious and even captious, gave considerable attention to its demise. The *New York Tribune* declared inasmuch as Grant had at the cabinet meeting "swept out the room [reform], put up the shutters, and took down the sign, it was in its day a good, nice, snug little Reform." It continued: "Once in a while some ambitious aspirant for a position who had qualified to support the Constitution and to draw pay for carrying a torch in a procession was put in a cold sweat by a series of interrogatories of the most startling character concerning decimal points and principal lake ports. . . . There were people who thought it [competitive system] all the time was doing good. Mr. D. B. Eaton did."²⁴⁴

The *New York Times* was not so caustic. It said that "the responsibility for the failure of the effort to separate politics and appointments to subordinate positions in the civil service must rest upon Congress. . . . Some officers had been heartily in favor of the civil service system, while others in considerable numbers had detested any system which would deprive them of their power to reward their friends and to make trades with politicians for Congressional support." The *Times* thought the undoing of the Rules was when they were extended to the field.²⁴⁵

THE "EXPERIMENT" IN RETROSPECT

WHEN this "civil service experiment" is fully evaluated,²⁴⁶ the circumstances of its creation and the conditions under which it was conducted must be weighed carefully. It was undertaken when the nation was just recuperating from one of the mightiest civil wars in history. Moreover, as Eaton later said, "by reason of the imperfect support given the reform, of open hostility in various official quarters, and of the damaging examples of official infidelity on the part of some connection with the Adminis-

²⁴⁵ *New York Times*, March 11, 1875.

²⁴⁶ Although the number of candidates examined in Washington was not large, there was enough activity to indicate the workings of a system. Between May 1872, and February 1874, 3,817 candidates had been examined. Of this number 2,286 sought entrance into the executive departments and 1,531 were for promotion. From those seeking entrance 282 were appointed to fill vacancies in the lowest grade, and from those seeking promotion 428 were appointed to fill vacancies above the lowest grade. *Report of the Chief Examiner to the Civil Service Commission* January 27, 1874, p. 25; *Report of the Civil Service Commission*, April 1874, p. 118. The total number of employees in the Federal Government for selected years between 1859 and 1876 are set forth below:*

Year	Washington	Elsewhere	Total
1859	1,538	36,477	38,015
1861	1,882	37,195	39,077
1865	4,425	46,088	50,513
1871	5,513	50,086	55,599
1873	6,023	57,312	63,335
1876	7,250	62,172	69,422

* These figures are based upon a compromise of two reports of total personnel inserted in the *Congressional Record* March 7, 1874, and August 15, 1876. The last one was prepared for "correcting" the first when it was reinserted July 18, 1876. See *Congressional Record*, 43 Cong. 1 sess., p. 2053; 44 Cong. 1 sess., pp. 4685 and 5659.

²⁴¹ *Harpers Weekly*, vol. 19, p. 254, March 27, 1875.

²⁴² See the Eaton address, May 14, 1875, quoted in "The Civil Service Experiment," *loc. cit.*, pp. 331-32; also see footnote 228.

²⁴³ See Part I of this article, *Public Personnel Review*, January 1942, pp. 29-30; also see footnote 174, *supra*.

²⁴⁴ *New York Tribune*, March 11, 1875.

tration, the new system was placed at a great disadvantage; but . . . despite all these drawbacks, its good effects clearly appeared, and . . . are not [now] open to question."²⁴⁷

The Civil Service Commission left a legacy both in law and in practice. The Act of March 3, 1871 under which it operated is far more sweeping in respect to the authority conferred on the President than is the Act of 1883. Thus this Act, now as Section 1753 of the Revised Statutes, owing its adoption as a rider to a much needed appropriation bill and surviving a repeal by failure of a Congressional conference, remains a most useful and vital part of federal personnel law. Though its legislative conception was damned, Congress never had the audacity to kill it, but in cowardice chose to abort the activities authorized under the act by withholding appropriations.

Most of the rules and regulations adopted in 1871 and 1872, and as modified in 1873, were incorporated either in the Act of 1883 or in the rules governing its administration. Specifically, the more important provisions adopted were: (1) A Commission, (2) a chief examiner,²⁴⁸ (3) a secretary,²⁴⁹ (4) local examining boards, (5) the civil service district system, (6) period of probation, and (7) a classification scheme.

Other features of the rules of 1871 and 1872 had their later adaptations: (1) qualifications for admission to examination, such as citizenship, loyalty, character, health, etc.; (2) prohibitions against political activity and other forms of proscription; (3) promotional examination; (4) rating of examinations; (5) certification of three highest candidates for appointment; (6) temporary appointments; and (7) some of the methods of

internal organization and examination practice.

Much of the terminology and many of the concepts employed in the proceedings, reports, and other recorded activities of the Commission still prevail. Among these are: "Civil Service Commission rules," "application," "test," "grade," "eligible," "ineligible," "register," "military preference," "position," "vacancy," "apportionment," "probation," "promotion," "classification," "superannuation," "political assessments," "pernicious political activity," "boards of examiners," "ratings of 70 per cent," "three highest eligibles," "policy-deciding officials," "certificate," and many others.

Most significant of all is the fact that the principle of competitive examination was adopted in a form the nature of which was very closely analogous to the British application and administration. Also of considerable significance is the fact that the examinations developed and used from 1872 to 1875 served as a basis for those used in 1883.

The first Civil Service Commission attempted to solve other personnel problems which were not recognized in the Act of 1883, such as position-classification, efficiency ratings, and superannuation. It undertook to administer competitive promotions, to determine positions for inclusion in, or exclusion from, the competitive system based upon their duties and responsibilities, and to decide such other exemptions from the operations of the rules as were deemed practicable or necessary.

THUS a small group of men, without a popular following but skillful in speech and phrase in behalf of a new political morality, forced a trial in administrative reform upon a hostile Congress and an unenthusiastic President. Although the first Civil Service Commission through which these advocates put their views into operation was itself short-lived, its legacy was the design for subsequent civil service machinery. Its procedures for civil service administration were

²⁴⁷ Dorman B. Eaton, *Civil Service in Great Britain* (1870). Appendix C, p. 445.

²⁴⁸ The title of this officer has, in purview of an opinion of the Attorney General August 12, 1933 (37 Op. Atty. Gen. 227), been changed to "Executive Director and Chief Examiner." (Minutes of Commission, June 29, 1938).

²⁴⁹ This position has not been filled in purview of an opinion of the Attorney General (*supra*, footnote 248) since September 12, 1933. (Minutes of Commission, September 12, 1933).

not fabricated from a pattern of revolt, but were drawn up after a study of British civil service practices and a consideration of the experiences in administration of the government-members of the Commission.

In their efforts these civil service reformers sought to place the responsibility for admin-

istration upon the President and the heads of departments. In the evolution of administrative management their work becomes most significant as marking the beginning of the President's rise to the actual leadership of administration in the federal government.



COURT DECISIONS

EDITED BY H. ELIOT KAPLAN

CLASSIFICATION BASED ON DUTIES RATHER THAN TITLE

SECTION 22 of the New York Civil Service Law, protecting employees against summary removals, originally excepted "the position of private secretary, cashier or deputy of any official or department." It was argued that this section therefore gave no protection to the petitioner holding the position of "cashier."

The Court held, however, that an employee in the position of cashier in the Mortgage Tax Bureau of the Erie County Clerk's office could not be summarily removed where it appeared that the State Civil Service Commission had reclassified the position from the exempt to the competitive class. (*Rohr v. Kenngott*, 288 N. Y. 97, 41 N. E. [2d] 905.) The court pointed out that "The Civil Service Commission has determined that . . . an examination is practicable. . . . Certainly the court cannot say that the finding of the Civil Service Commission that a competitive examination is practicable is arbitrary. Upon the transfer of the position occupied by the petitioner to the competitive class, the petitioner became entitled to the same security of tenure he would have had if he had been appointed after competitive examination."

The Court, after calling attention to the fact that a recent legislative amendment restricts the operation of the saving clause regarding cashiers and deputies to the first part of Section 22, involving only the rights of veterans and volunteer firemen, went on to say:

We need not decide whether in this case without such amendment the statute could be so construed, for in any

event the position under the title of "cashier" which the petitioner occupied is not a position of "cashier" within the meaning of the statute. The Legislature did not intend that rights of tenure to a position should be determined by the name given to the position. The duties of the position as defined by some statute or by an ordinance or resolution of a body duly authorized by statute, not its name determine the status of a position.

The court found that "the duties of the holder of the position are not confined to the handling of moneys . . . in the course of the performance of his duties the petitioner has been required to examine . . . papers and documents filed or recorded in the office of the County Clerk . . ."

(*Editor's Note: See Byrnes v. Windels*, 265 N. Y. 403; 193 N. E. 248 [1934].)

CREDIT FOR TEMPORARY SERVICE HELD INVALID

ANY formulation of qualifications for a position in the civil service which provides for credit or benefit based upon the disregard of the provisions of the Civil Service Law is contrary to public policy and is from its nature arbitrary and unlawful." Thus, a notice of examination for Chief of Police of the City of Mechanicsville, New York, was vacated where its provisions allowed a provisional appointee, illegally retained in his position beyond the four month statutory period, to take the advertised examination, where otherwise he could not qualify for admission to the test. The court will not set aside reasonable administrative determinations, of course, but the ruling of the Commission in the instant case was found to be "neither reasonable nor lawful if experience obtained in a police department of a city under an appointment or tenure which violates the law may constitute qualification for a position in the civil service." (*Camfield v. Mealy*, 288 N. Y. 149, 42 N. Y. [2d] 9.)

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PREFERRED ELIGIBLE LISTS

THERE are usually well defined limitations placed on the appointment of those holding positions on civil service preferred eligible lists. A typical requirement in this connection is that the eligible can be reappointed only to a position similar to the one from which he was removed, and this principle formed the basis for the decision in *Schmidt v. Hurst*, 124, Pac. (2d) 235 (Colo.). A state revenue collector was number 31 on a preferred list, pursuant to statutory direction that, where a permanent appointee is separated from the service through no delinquency on his part, his name shall be entered on a preferred list of eligibles, which list shall take precedence over all other lists for appointments to positions the "duties of which are of a same or similar character." The subsequent certification of the revenue collector to a position as chief of staff services, a research position relating to the collection of state revenue, was held improper. The court said:

The services and duties of a revenue collector are not the same as, or similar to, the duties of chief of staff services. Furthermore, even if the positions were similar, the appointment was not according to seniority, as required by statute. The appointee here was No. 31 on the list. Under any circumstances, the first name at the head of the preferred eligible list . . . would have been entitled to this position, if it was "of the same or a similar character." The commission failed to appoint such person.

The Court also deemed the appointment invalid, because it constituted a promotion without examination, in violation of civil service requirements. The state constitution specifically requires promotions, as well as appointments, to be made according to merit and fitness, "to be ascertained by competitive tests of competence." The appointee had held a position in Grade 4 (\$1500 to \$2000 annually), and his appointment from the list was to a position in Grade 6 (more than \$2500 annually). "There is here a jump of two salary grades," stated the Court, "with the result that we have a promotion without competitive examination, which is not a transfer, and which is not a change in a similar position in the same class or sub-class and grade with the consent of the heads of the departments."

(Editor's Note: For a discussion of similarity of positions for purpose of transfer, see *O'Connell v. Clark*, 200 App. Div. (N. Y.) 500.)

"ADVISORY" ELIGIBLE LIST INVALID FOR
REGULAR APPOINTMENTS

THE New York City Civil Service Commission conducted an examination for City Marshal, and established "an informal qualified list for the Mayor's advice only, since the position is not yet in the competitive class." The office of City Marshal has never been in the classified branch of the city civil service. A City Marshal never had a status as a "civil service employee" and never enjoyed any of the privileges under the Civil Service Law.

In *Hirsch v. Marsh*, 34 N. Y. S. (2d) 570, the court ruled that the commission could not certify the city marshal eligible list for appointments to the position of deputy sheriff, a position recently transferred to the competitive class. The court said, in part:

Where a list is not considered as an eligible list under the Civil Service Law for a position which it purports to cover, it certainly cannot be considered a valid civil service list from which to make appointments under the Civil Service Law to another position in the competitive class of the civil service. In other words, if, as is conceded, the persons appearing on the City Marshal list . . . had no civil service status for appointment to the position or office of City Marshal, they cannot have any civil service status for appointment to some other position in the classified civil service of the City. To hold otherwise would be to frustrate competition as required by the Constitution and the Civil Service Law and to impair the entire merit system.

APPOINTMENT TO "DIFFERENT" POSITION

THE New York Supreme Court has recently drawn a rather fine distinction in cases involving the appointment of those on an eligible list to a position other than the one for which the list was created, where, as a condition of the appointment, the eligible is made to waive all rights he may have to appointment from the eligible list on which he was originally placed. The court ruled that such a waiver is binding on the appointee, but only on condition that the position to which he is appointed is not "inferior" to the position which the eligible list entitled him to hold. (*Luria v. Marsh*, 34 N. Y. S. [2d] 798 [Supp. Ct., Sp. Term].)

In the case under consideration, the petitioners were placed on an eligible list for the position of policewoman, but were certified for and accepted appointment as correction officers, with notice that their names would be removed from the policewoman eligible list. The right of the petitioners to be subsequently restored to the policewoman list was denied by the court.

Section 14 of the New York Civil Service Law provides that "Appointment shall be made from the eligible list most nearly appropriate for the group in which the position to be filled is classified and a new list shall be created for a stated position or group of positions only when there is no appropriate list existing from which appointment may be made." This section, said the Court,

clearly envisages permanent appointments from existing lists to appropriate positions. Any interpretation which would require that a person appointed to an appropriate position must remain on the original eligible list would do violence to the intent of the provision. It would mean that whenever an appointee's name was reached upon the original eligible list he might leave the "appropriate" position. This would often result in a complete waste of special training and require retraining for appointees who elected to change their positions. There would be no such thing as permanent appointments.

However, the court recognized that in *Matter of Aliotta v. Finegan*, 252 A. D. 855, 300 N. Y. S. 1332, (no opinion), the right of those on a patrolman list to be restored to that list, despite their express waiver of eligibility upon appointment to other positions, had been upheld. But the court pointed out that in that case the patrolman eligibles had been appointed as special railroad patrolmen and toll collectors, positions definitely "inferior" to that of patrolman. The Court stated in part:

It is this court's opinion, therefore, that the Aliotta decision ruled that the Civil Service Commission may not, in making appointments from existing lists to definitely inferior positions which it has declared "appropriate," require as a condition of appointment that the name of the appointee be removed from the original eligible list. It would not matter whether the condition was imposed by means of a waiver or by notice either before or after the examination. The criterion is not the method of notice . . . , but the relationship between the duties and rewards of the position for which the eligible has proved his worth and the duties and rewards of the position in return for which he is asked to give up his original eligibility. . . .

It should be noted that the rule being considered does not turn on a mere weighing of the two positions involved or on any other single item, but rather on a comprehensive consideration of the requirements, duties and rewards of the positions. In applying this rule the Commission should be given appreciable latitude for the reasonable exercise of its discretion and only where it has acted in an arbitrary or unreasonable manner should the courts intervene.

The court found further that the position of correction officer, to which the petitioners were appointed, was substantially equivalent to that of policewoman, for which they were originally eligible, so that the Commission properly discontinued them on the policewoman eligible

list upon their appointment as correction officers.

ADMINISTRATIVE DISCRETION IN DETERMINING PROMOTIONAL AREA

THE action of the New York City Civil Service Commission in denying to railroad clerks in the Board of Transportation the right to take a promotion examination for the position of Junior Accountant was held reasonable and proper. (*Hecht v. Kern*, 34 N. Y. S. [2d] 794 [Sup. Ct. Sp. Term].) The position of railroad clerk had been reclassified into the "railroad service," although originally the employees filling that position were taken from the clerical service. The position of junior accountant was in the clerical service. Stated the court:

In denying the petitioners admission to the junior accountant examination the commission acted reasonably and well within its discretion. It held that the duties and experience of a railroad clerk naturally fitted him for higher positions in the "railroad service," and not for the position of junior accountant. Consideration of the duties of railroad clerks, many of which are common knowledge, and of the contents of recent examinations for promotion to the position, support the Commission's contention that the position is essentially a railroad position. . . . While classification within the competitive services are not binding upon the courts in considering eligibility for promotional examination . . . , it is well established that where there is a fair and reasonable ground for differences of opinion among intelligent and conscientious officials, the action of the Commission should stand even though the courts may differ from the Commission as to the wisdom of the classification.

The fact that the Commission had formerly allowed railroad service employees to take examinations for positions in the clerical service does not compel a continuance of that course of conduct. The petitioners (railroad service employees) have no vested right in an existing rule or practice of the Commission, the court held, and the Commission can change such practice whenever it acts upon reasonable cause.

POWER TO REGULATE EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS

IN THE absence of a statute or express statutory authorization, the Mayor and Board of Estimate of the City of New York were without power to prescribe regulations providing that civil service employees must work only for the city, and not for any outside employers, under penalty of dismissal. The Court pointed out that the legislative power of the city was

vested by its charter in the city council. "We find no provisions in the charter which vest the Mayor with power to remove civil service employees for the reasons given herein. The charter furthermore does not grant power to the Mayor or the Board of Estimate to make civil service rules." (The power of a civil service commission to promulgate such a rule was not at issue, and was not considered by the Court.) *Natilson v. Hodson*, 35 N. Y. S. (2d) 537 (App. Div.).

RIGHTS OF EMPLOYEES IN MILITARY SERVICE

NEW YORK CITY fire department employees who enlisted in the United States Naval Reserve after the outbreak of the present war, and who were virtually immediately thereafter ordered to active duty, are entitled to the full benefits of the State Military Law, granting payment of the difference between their civil service and military compensation. (*Roper v. Walsh*, 35 N. Y. S. [2d] 553 [App. Div.].)

An amendment to the Military Law, effective April 1, 1942, limited the special privileges to state and municipal civil service employees who were in the Reserve on or before April 1, 1942. The amendment made no distinction as to the time of enlistment of the various members of the Reserve who were also civil service employees. The Court held that there is nothing in the statute to suggest that "voluntary enlistments made by civil service employees after the outbreak of hostilities had the effect of putting such enlistees in any different category from citizens who had joined the Reserve prior thereto."

The Court also ruled that the enlistees in the instant case were entitled to have their official departmental records "show that they are absent in accordance with, and are fully protected by, the provisions of the Military Law." (The law provides that no employee shall be "prejudiced by reason of such absence with reference to promotion or continuance in office or employment or to reappointment to office or reemployment.")

POWER OF LAYOFF FOR REASONS OF ECONOMY

THE oft repeated principle that civil service provisions cannot operate to defeat suspensions of employees, where such suspensions are made in good faith and are in fact layoffs for reasons of economy, was re-affirmed in

Kennedy v. City of Joliet, 41 N. E. (2d) 957 (Ill.). The Court upheld the propriety of periodic 30 day suspensions, made in good faith. "Power to discharge or lay off employees in such cases exists independently of the provisions of the (civil service) statute."

DEDUCTION FROM BACK PAY AFTER REINSTATEMENT

WHERE a mandamus proceeding by civil service employees seeking reinstatement and payment of salaries resulted in the granting of a writ ordering the payment of a specific salary sum per month, it was held that the administrative board was not guilty of contempt of the mandamus order in deducting from the salary named in the writ the amount earned by the employees in private pursuits while unlawfully deprived of public employment. "It does not necessarily follow," stated the court, "that because the specified salary was ordered to be paid, no lawful deductions could be made. The judgment should be interpreted, if it may be, without doing violence to the express language, so that it does not command that the public officers perform an unlawful act. It is the law . . . that deductions should be made for compensation received in other employment while the employees were unlawfully excluded from their positions. Therefore, to order public officials to pay public funds in violation of that rule would be unlawful. . . . In the light of those principles we believe the judgment properly interpreted means that there should be deducted from the salaries accruing between the date of the judgment and reinstatement, the compensation received from other employment." *State Board of Equalization v. Superior Court of Los Angeles County*, 127 Pac. (2d) 4 (Cal.).

(Editor's Note: The general rule in most states is to permit the deduction of earnings from salary accrued during suspension. See, for example, *Barmonde v. Kaplan*, 266 N. Y. 214, and Section 23, Civil Service Law of New York.)

EXHAUSTION OF ADMINISTRATIVE REMEDIES AFTER REMOVAL

IN *Alexander v. State Personnel Board*, 124 Pac. (2d) 338 (Cal. Dist. Ct. App.), the Court declined to give relief to civil service employees complaining of an improper dis-

missal, where the employees had not petitioned the state personnel board for a rehearing within thirty days of its decision of removal, as permitted by statute. The court said:

Where an administrative remedy is provided by statute, relief must be sought from the administrative body and this remedy exhausted before the courts will act. . . . It is not a matter of judicial discretion, but is a fundamental rule of procedure laid down by courts of last resort, followed under the doctrine of *stare decisis*, and binding upon all courts. . . . Exhaustion of the administrative remedy is a jurisdictional prerequisite to resort to the courts. . . . where the administrative procedure [in this case a removal hearing] prescribes a rehearing, the rule of exhaustion of remedies will apply in order that the board may be given an opportunity to correct any errors that it may have had.

ADMINISTRATIVE REVIEW OF REMOVALS

THE charter of the City of Los Angeles contains an interesting provision with respect to review by the city civil service board of departmental removals of civil service employees. The charter provides that the board, upon its own motion or on application of the removed employee, "shall proceed to investigate the grounds for such removal. . . . If after such investigation said board finds, in writing that the grounds stated for such removal . . . were insufficient or were not sustained, and also finds in writing that the person removed . . . is a fit and suitable person to fill the position from which he was removed . . . said board shall order said person so removed . . . to be reinstated or restored to duty."

It should be noted that a removed employee must satisfy two requirements to earn reinstatement by the civil service board: (1) The Board must find that the grounds stated for the removal were not sustained. (2) The board must find that the removed employee is fit to hold the position from which he was removed. Thus, it is possible for a civil service board to find that the grounds of removal of an employee are not justified, and, at the same time, to refuse to reinstate the removed employee as unqualified to continue. This was the situation in *Meyer v. Bd. of Public Works of City of Los Angeles*, 125 Pac. (2d) 50 (Cal. Dist. Ct. App.).

The city superintendent of street maintenance was removed by the Board of Public Works for being financially interested in public contracts. The city civil service board, reviewing the removal, found that "the grounds stated for the discharge are not proven to the satisfaction of this board by the evidence submitted or obtained. . . ." However, in review-

ing the removal, the board had the testimony of the removed employee to the effect that he gambled extensively, and so it refused to reinstate him, on the ground that he was not a suitable person to hold the office.

The court held that such a finding was not arbitrary, and upheld the action of the civil service board in denying relief to the removed employee.

(*Editor's Note:* The effect of a charter provision of the type here involved is to relax greatly the usually strict provisions regarding removal of civil service employees. The civil service board, reviewing a removal, need not confine itself to specific charges of proven misconduct. All that is necessary, apparently, is a broad, general finding based on some evidence directly or indirectly relating to the performance of his work, or general conduct of an employee, that the employee is not fit to hold office.)

REMOVAL OF CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSIONERS

A DECISION of perhaps far-reaching effect on the law governing removals of city civil service commissioners has been handed down by the Appellate Division of the New York Supreme Court. The removal of two New York City civil service commissioners by the Mayor of that city resulted in considerable newspaper comment, and the disposition of the case by the courts had been awaited with more than usual interest, largely because of the personalities involved and the interesting circumstances of the case "outside the court records."

The Appellate Division decision (by four to one), upholding the removal of two of the commissioners in *Kern v. LaGuardia*, (108 N. Y. L. Journal, 115, July 15, 1942), accepted as its basic premise that "petitioners were removed because they issued to the public press of the City of New York a false statement concerning the Corporation Counsel of the City of New York," which statement read, in part:

If we were permitted to defend the merit system only when the Corporation Counsel chose to help us the merit system would be at the mercy of any politically minded lawyer who happened to hold that job. We have not forgotten that the present Corporation Counsel supported Ed Flynn's candidate for Mayor against LaGuardia in 1933 and it is not surprising, therefore, that he should refuse to represent us in our efforts to put Ed Flynn's favorites out of the Register's Office and replace them with competitive employees.

The court observed that the "words contained in the foregoing statement charged betrayal of his trust by the Corporation Counsel, and were obviously defamatory."

The court pointed out that where a civil service commissioner is removed by the Mayor, rather than by the State Commission (Civ. Ser. L., Sec. 11, sub. 6), "the Mayor is given much broader powers than the State Commission with respect to the grounds of the removal. . . . The cause for removal must be substantial, and not trivial. It must have some relation to the fitness of the commissioners to perform their duties as public officials, and there must be sufficient evidence to support the charges."

The court found that the press release,

... made without justification . . . tended to besmirch the reputation and impair the usefulness of a public official whose duties included representation of the Municipal Civil Service Commission in the enforcement of the Civil Service Law. The Mayor, we think, had the authority to find that the making of such a statement did constitute cause for removal and that it bore a direct relation to the usefulness and fitness of the petitioners to carry on their duties as Civil Service Commissioners. The court also deemed the notice of hearing sufficient, because, although it did not disclose what particular acts of misconduct were being complained of, the record establishes that before the hearing commenced petitioners were advised that the charges were based solely on the issuance by them of the press release defaming another public official.

One of the judges dissented in a caustic opinion, arguing that the words of the press release "unsupported by an innuendo, cannot be construed as imputing improper motives to the Corporation Counsel for his refusal to represent the petitioners. They merely call attention to the natural reluctance of that official to act adversely to friends. The alleged charges

upon which the Commissioners were removed were not substantial or of such character as to warrant the drastic action taken by the Mayor. . . . Perhaps, the Mayor, being naturally sensitive, was shocked by the criticism of his corporation counsel, but that is not sufficient to warrant the removal of the commissioners." He also maintained that the charges against the commissioners were "evidently used as a pretext to remove the commissioners who would not perform the illegal acts directed by the Mayor."

An appeal to the highest court has been taken by the commissioners and will probably come before that court for hearing in the early Fall.

THE Mayor of the City of Oswego was held to have no power to remove summarily the city civil service commissioner. The Mayor contended that the commissioner had never properly qualified, since at the time he took his oath of office, the proper blanks in the oath book kept at the city clerk's office were not filled in until a later time on the same day. The court pointed out that "according to the undisputed testimony, petitioner actually took and swore to the oath. It is a general rule that in case of the omission of the jurat or signature thereto upon an affidavit . . ., the fact that the oath was administered at the time may be shown aliunde." Thus, the commissioner properly occupied his office, and a summary removal is expressly forbidden by the city charter, and the civil service law, which grants to appointees an opportunity to be heard before removal. *Hall v. Scanlon*, 35 N. Y. S. (2d) 697 (Sup. Ct., Sp. Term).

BOOK REVIEWS

The Future Of Government In The United States. Edited by Leonard D. White. University of Chicago Press. Chicago, Illinois. 1942. 274 pp. \$3.50.

To persons interested in the future of government in the United States sufficient commendation of this book should be a list of the authors—all disciples of Dr. Charles E. Merriam—of the essays contained therein, and a statement that it was edited by Dr. Leonard D. White.

The initial chapter was written by the prolific hand of Dr. Merriam himself. In his inimitable style he has given, under the heading, "The Education of Charles E. Merriam," sometimes with subtle humor, yet realistically, a segment of a more adequate autobiography, the completion of which is promised at a later date.

The remaining eleven chapters are: (1) "The Developing Science of Democracy," by Harold D. Lasswell; (2) "The Future of Urbanism," by Albert Lepawsky; (3) "Development in Governmental Planning," by John A. Vieg; (4) "Political Leadership and the Press," by Leo C. Rosten; (5) "The Future of the American Party System," by Harold F. Gosnell; (6) "Trends in Party Campaign Funds," by Louise Overacker; (7) "Politics and Administration," by V. O. Key, Jr.; (8) "The Future of Administrative Management," by Joseph P. Harris; (9) "The Public Service of the Future," by Leonard D. White; (10) "Sovereignty," by Hymen E. Cohen; and (11) "World Politics and American Destiny," by Frederick L. Schuman.

In the preface, Dr. White, in referring to the authors, points out that "each one of them has taken one of Merriam's many interests and in this volume sought to forecast the kind of governmental problems and solutions that are likely to emerge." In their prophetic roles, the

authors have drawn on the entire span of recorded history of government for bases for their predictions. Reasoning according to the scientific method they have blueprinted the future of government in the United States.

On the whole the outlook is one of optimism. Important changes are inevitable. Some are in process already and are the result of the impact of influences largely outside the realm of government. Other changes will come after deliberate, scientific planning. The materialization of many of the most promising aspects of American life in the future is contingent upon planning—wise and careful planning in government.

Conflicts between rural and urban peoples are to be dissolved because there will be no rural and urban peoples in the not too distant future. Instead we are to become a nation of suburbanites or "rurbanites." The newer technological developments encourage the dispersion of populations. New functions of government will continue to accrue at all levels. Trends will be toward centralization of power and responsibility—these coupled with local execution of policies and administrative standards, wherever practicable.

Persons interested in public personnel administration will note the prediction that there will be increased imposition of personnel and operating standards by the federal government in activities carried on jointly by the federal government and units of government at lower levels. This is particularly significant in view of the increasing participation of the federal government in services formerly considered as strictly state or local functions.

Personnel administration is recognized as an aspect of management. It is therefore predicted that this phase of management will be brought more closely under the influence and control of

chief executives. The delay in this transition is credited to civil service reformers who have not considered personnel administration a function of management, and, too, have not trusted chief executives to keep civil service free from political patronage. More important is the fact that governors and mayors have not until recently been equipped sufficiently with staff aides to do the jobs. It is pointed out that the trend is toward development and strengthening of the executive in government. Adequate staff assistance is essential if the chief executive is to fulfill his mission in government.

Also of interest to the public personnel field is the prediction that by the end of a couple of decades a truly national career service for top management in government may be a reality.

The final chapter is characterized by devastating verbal economy in placing the blame for the present global catastrophe. It is a solid, scholarly analysis of the Anglo-American shortcomings of the past, and of our responsibilities for the future. Delineation of America's role in the World Commonwealth of the future is accomplished by a clear-cut program of action—based on the assumption that the United Nations will win the war.

It is to be regretted that two of the essays, at first contemplated, were not completed, and, therefore, had to be left out of the picture. Those included, however, are treated in proper proportions and are logically related to each other. The pattern of government of the future is convincingly portrayed. An adequate review that would do complete justice to the book would include a summarization of each chapter which space here will not permit. Suffice it to add that the authors have done a highly competent job, which is a credit to themselves and to Dr. Merriam, who must derive profound satisfaction from this volume written in his honor.

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Safety Supervision. Vernon G. Schaefer. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Incorporated. New York. 1941. 352 pp. \$2.50.

The author states clearly in the opening paragraph of the preface the aim of the book, *Safety Supervision*: "The purpose of this book is to discuss the human element involved in the problems of the supervisor who must promote

the safety of the workers in his division. It is not a discussion of the engineering problems of safety or of the conventional problems of keeping accident records and making accident reports."

The problem of safety accompanying any group where work goes on is apparent to most supervisors in a general way. The author states the problem succinctly and adequately so that anyone who is responsible for the safety program in an organization has no lack of knowledge what the problem constitutes. Being explicit about the nature of the problem of safety, the author follows immediately with an outline designating the responsibility involved in carrying out a successful safety program. In addition to the humane viewpoint is the economic one, both of which are of vital concern to management, which has the first and foremost responsibility for maintaining an accident-free organization. The amount charged by industry to lost-time injuries and fatalities runs well over six million dollars annually.

How best go about establishing practices to prevent accidents? Workshops, places of business, offices, public conveyances—all must be so arranged and constructed by engineers to assure safety to people who frequent these places. This is not sufficient in itself to avoid all accidents. Careless habits inevitably lead to injurious consequences.

Safety Supervision is a popularly written manual on applied psychology accompanied by a knowledge of good common sense and understanding of human conduct. The principles set forth here are thoroughly sound and in keeping with the up-to-date principles of psychology. The book takes into consideration all the human factors that aid in establishing normal conditions which are conducive to a feeling of good will, to thoughts of personal welfare, and consideration for the well-being of others. It requires the combined efforts of management, supervisors and workers to assure success.

The book instructs clearly the supervisors whose immediate business it is to see to safety rules. The text is simple enough for the unschooled to inform himself how best to go about instituting an accident prevention program for the people he supervises. He must understand what it is that he wants his workers to know, and he must know how he can best ac-

comply with the teaching of the workers in safety habits.

The strong point of the book is the positive way in which the author presents his ideas. He believes, and I agree that he is right, that only desirable habits should be offered to the workers. To point out undesirable practices through posters, bulletins, house organs, lectures, printed rules and other media may incline workers to be annoyed, or influenced and encouraged to practice such habits. A positive program which is well carried out is sufficient to instill the right habits. This book presents a full knowledge of all the principles involved in the fulfillment of a successful program to reduce accidents to a minimum.

LEROY J. BRENNEMAN

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The Fundamentals of Industrial Psychology.

Albert Walton. McGraw-Hill Book Company, Incorporated. New York. 1941. 231 pp. \$2.00.

This brief text was designed to supplement a course of extension lectures in fundamentals of industrial supervision. The book is directed to readers with no previous training in psychology and assumes a minimum acquaintance with the related social sciences.

It provides a brief background of the field of psychology and its methods, and outlines the part psychology can play in applying its techniques and methods to the problems of industry. The major portion of the book deals with tests and their uses, the basis of personality, efficiency methods, principles of learning, factors affecting fatigue, monotony, and accidents, and a discussion of motives, morale, and attitudes. In the final section the author points the way to supervisors in their endeavors to apply much of what has been set forward.

The discussion of testing is on the whole sound. Emphasis is laid on the need for establishing validity and reliability and for proceeding with caution in the use of too rigid testing methods. Specific tests for varying purposes are referred to, and in general their values and weaknesses are carefully stated. The author extends advice cautioning the inexperienced user against depending too much on a testing program, and also against the possibility of faulty interpretation by an untrained person. The analysis of the limitation of such tests is ac-

curate enough, but additional stress on this aspect would have strengthened the author's arguments and admonitions. The dangers inherent in the use of tests by the inexperienced are well known and this section of the book might have profited by additional emphasis on their weaknesses.

The chapters concerning training programs and efficiency methods deal only with the rudimentary points of such work. Much of the text here is taken up with a discussion of the accompanying social concepts and implications. The simple but adequate description of some of the psychological factors affecting production rates which is included would undoubtedly suggest possibilities to an interested foreman or section supervisor. There is some question in the reviewer's mind, however, if any of the suggested methods for dealing with the problems of adjustment and increased production could be applied by any supervisor without additional and specialized training. The book does not advocate such a course of action, but there is no warning to the zealous foreman of the pitfalls that he might encounter.

The section on motives, morale and attitudes gives many specific points upon which these intangibles depend. The factor of appreciation in relation to morale and its importance affords a good example. It could very easily be a new idea to many a supervisor, and yet one which could readily be understood and applied by a man who was interested in doing his part to improve employee relations and working conditions. These chapters probably are the most practical in the book in so far as the foreman and supervisor are concerned.

Because of the composition of its intended audience, the book is simply and directly written with a popular approach. The information presented is elementary and understandable. For a trained psychologist or personnel administrator it would be of little direct value. However, if used in conjunction with a planned program of lectures, the book may well serve its purpose by presenting to its readers new lines of thinking in relation to their work and some valuable suggestions that could be applied advantageously.

WILLARD E. PARKER

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What's Past Is Prologue. Mary Barnett Gilson. Harper and Brothers. New York. 1940. 307 pp. \$3.00.

In her preface, Miss Gilson states that her purpose in writing this book was "to attempt to get perspective on the past fifty years of my personal experiences with the hope that this might be of some small value to persons who will help to shape the next fifty." She has succeeded admirably in her purpose, and in addition has written a book that must be as interesting to the layman as to the student of industrial management.

Miss Gilson grew up in a typical middle class home of the late nineteenth century. She was taught by her good Presbyterian parents to be forthright and to take a stand on all issues. She says, "It means eating your words, this thing of refusing to be a fence sitter, but I'd rather eat my words than get calluses from sitting." She laments the lack of consciousness of social and economic problems during her childhood and college days at Wellesley and envies modern youth its opportunities in this direction.

After her graduation from Wellesley, the author "returned to Pittsburgh armed with a reading knowledge of, and the capacity to enjoy Greek in the original, some Latin, a smattering of sciences and philosophy, and a rich acquaintanceship with the Bible and other great books of literature. . . . I entertained vague longings to share my newly acquired 'culture' and to 'minister' to a benighted world, but I was as innocent as a babe in arms of the vast problems I was soon to face in a world of steel mills and slums."

Her experience in a Pittsburgh public library branch in a slum area, in training department store girls in Boston, and as a vocational counselor in a trade school for girls gave her a practical education in social and economic problems. The intimate contacts with mismanagement in industrial establishments while attempting to place the girls from the trade school aroused her interest in scientific management. She became a disciple of Frederick W. Taylor after attending a series of his lectures in Boston. She contends that Taylor was misunderstood by labor leaders—that he realized that application of his principle would benefit labor, but purposely appealed to employers on the basis of economy and profits because he

knew it was they and only they who had the power and influence to adopt it.

In 1913 Miss Gilson became employment manager in the Clothcraft Shops of the Joseph and Feiss Company in Cleveland, pioneers in scientific management. The factory manager had prepared the way for her by educating management, including the foremen, in the Taylor concept of functionalization. She met with no antagonism from the foremen although she was assuming a function previously performed by them. This wisdom and foresight in management seems the more amazing since almost thirty years later the principle of employee education and participation in management problems is so little practiced in either industry or government.

As the author puts it, she had to begin at scratch. Employment blanks were developed by trial and error as was the interviewing technique. Psychological tests were used later but sparingly and intelligently. She soon discovered by correlation studies that the early tests, which were too heavily weighted in favor of verbal facility, corresponded very little with ability in certain plant operations.

It became obvious to the management of the plant that it was necessary in the interest of morale and efficiency to work out more equitable rates of pay for the 170 different operations in the plant. The rates were worked out in close consultation with foremen and employees according to such factors as skill, amount of preliminary training, and concentration and effort required for each job. After these rates were set, they were posted in the plant. There was no secrecy about this or other aspects of management. It was the policy of management to keep employees informed. A rating system was later worked out as a basis for promotion.

Probably much of the success of the Joseph and Feiss Company in meeting management's responsibilities was the relationship developed with foremen. At regular meetings concrete problems were discussed. Before any new ideas were introduced the foremen were thoroughly informed. Miss Gilson feels now that the group was too self-centered, that not enough time was given to exploring broader horizons, that "management and labor must, if they have both foresight and hindsight, collaborate to achieve something in addition to higher wages, shorter hours and decent physical working conditions

if the productive process is to accelerate and not impede the progress of a democratic system, and this something must include concern with community as well as working conditions and concern with the worker as an individual, not merely as a cog in a machinery."

Interesting chapters are included on her war experience both in the plant and in government, on her experience in textile mills, on her studies of Hawaiian sugar plantations for industrial relations counselors, on unemployment benefits in the United States and England, and on her teaching experience at the University of Chicago.

Miss Gilson is an ardent and convincing exponent of equal rights and responsibilities for women. She says of women, "Too often they grow into physical maturity only to face a world offering even more emotional conflicts to them than to men. For millions of women can't know where they are going and don't even know where they want to go. No clear course is offered them, no basic concept that idleness and lack of purpose, regardless of background and income, are as disgraceful for them as for men, that self respect is dependent upon the dignified performance of some function essential to human development and to the preservation of a healthy society. . . . I believe that all women of working ages and physical capacity, regardless of income, should be expected to earn their livings either in or out of the home."

The book is interesting as a portrayal of the early days of scientific management and of the emergence of a philosophy and methodology of administration that has had a profound influence on present-day thought and practice. Although the book does not emphasize management techniques as such, in furnishing the background for advanced present day practices, it should provide stimulus and inspiration for students in the field.

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BOOK NOTES

Cost-of-Living Salary Plans for Municipal Employees. J. M. Leonard and Rosina Mohaupt, Detroit Bureau of Governmental Research, Incorporated. Detroit, Michigan. February, 1942. 51 pp. \$5.00.

This report deals with the broad problem of cost-of-living adjustments to municipal salaries

and the practical application of several adjustment plans now in operation. Although the study is intended to contribute to the solution of the problems of salary policy in Detroit, the analyses of cost-of-living salary adjustment plans are made from a research point of view; that is, they do not rely for meaning upon the Detroit frame of reference. Principal attention is given to the St. Paul plan and to a plan recently adopted by the Dearborn, Michigan, school system.

Barriers to Youth Employment. Paul T. David, American Council on Education, Washington, D. C. 1942. 110 pp. \$1.75.

The purpose of this book, prepared for the American Youth Commission, is to deal "with some of the more conspicuous obstacles which frequently seem to stand in the way of youth employment." It is not intended, however, to be a complete study, but is complementary to the previously published general report of the American Youth Commission, "Youth and the Future." In addition to general background material concerning the organization of employment, the report considers such topics of major importance as: the relationship between youth employment and controls which are exercised over entrance into occupations, the problems of seniority, share-the-work, and employment stabilization; the problem of child labor, including state and federal legislative regulation; and the question of state and federal minimum wages and juvenile wage policy.

Government and Politics in the United States. Harold Zink. The Macmillan Company. New York. 1942. 1091 pp. \$4.00.

As adequate a presentation of public personnel administration as appears in any college text designed for general courses in American government has been included in this new book by Professor Zink of DePauw University. Although the major discussion of public personnel techniques appears in connection with the administration of the national government, several pages are devoted to the merit system in the chapter on state administration. Perhaps, however, the salient feature of the volume is the realistic descriptions of the operations of the spoils system which appear at several points, particularly in the discussions of the organization of political parties and the functions of

the Governor. The author fully realizes the importance of the role of personnel administration, whether on a spoils basis or the preferred merit basis, in the whole galaxy of American governmental institutions. This point of view is characteristic of the entire volume and should be a source of recommendation to political science students and teachers.

Women in War Industries. Helen Baker. Industrial Relations Section, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey. 1942. 82 pp. \$1.50.

Employment of Women in the Federal Government, 1923 to 1939. Rachel Fesler Nyswander and Janet M. Hooks. Bulletin of the Women's Bureau, No. 182. United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. 1941. 60 pp. \$1.10.

These pamphlets represent two replies to the many recent queries for information concern-

ing work opportunities for women in both government and industry. Though the employment of women has been substantially increasing in the past three decades, woman power remains a large and relatively unexplored source of labor supply. *Women in War Industries* gives the results of a study begun in October, 1941 by the Industrial Relations Section of Princeton University, and supplements a preliminary report which was issued in February, 1942. It summarizes the principal personnel problems facing industry in connection with the greater employment of women, and evaluates the methods which have been used by the United States and Great Britain to meet these problems. A selected bibliography is included. The bulletin on *Employment of Women in Federal Government, 1923 to 1939*, analyses data on the particular occupations and salaries of women in the federal service. Information on how to qualify for federal employment is also included.

ARTICLE ABSTRACTS

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION— GENERAL ASPECTS

72. Jessen, Preben. The where's and how's of better utilization of materials, equipment and labor. *Advanced Management* 7 (2) April-June, 1942: 86:90. —The war effort requires the effective utilization of all available materials, productive facilities, and manpower. The materials problem can be met by a reduction of wastage, and the conservation and substitution of materials. A reduction of wastage can be brought about after a careful study of *where* and *why* waste occurs and *how* to eliminate it; by reduction of spoilages and surpluses; reworking, repairing, storing, and reselling of defective, and spoiled materials; standardization and simplification of design, and unification of patterns; efficient machinery; and sufficient well-trained personnel. The conservation and substitution of materials can be effected through establishing usage and waste standards, and bonuses, reconsideration of product design to trim off features which exceed requirements, and reconsideration of methods and formulae for the conservation of the scarce materials. A more efficient use of productive facilities may be reached by management itself through the elimination of the purchase, rental, or construction of equipment which cannot return their cost reasonably fast; the elimination of machine idleness due to lack of materials, poor planning or supervision; and the proper care of equipment. Those matters affecting a more effective use of productive facilities which are not wholly within the control of management are the failure or inability of management, unions, and government to provide satisfactory rules and regulations governing the work, enough trained operators, proper incentives for subcontracting and conversion, and sufficient materials for production. The problem of labor conservation can be met in part by previously mentioned actions and by more effective supervision and subdivision of operations, the use of skilled operators only on jobs requiring skill, greater use of machines, extension of effective working time, and the substitution of women for men. An increased use of women in industry would enable an increased output of war materials and

still permit the building of an armed force of maximum power.—Charles F. Parker, Jr.

73. Moore, Herbert. Supervision (No. 1—Selection). *Personnel Journal*. 20 (10) April, 1942: 353-356.—While still responsible for maintaining production schedules and adequate quality standards, the modern foreman must also know: the details and the soundness of management's wishes; the reaction of workers to every decision and request of management; and to what extent fairness of treatment, satisfaction of values, and harmony with interests and abilities are realized. Knowing the men from every angle, the foreman can measure his men's abilities, interests, hopes, and ambitions; discover their trainability in other related, and even unrelated, fields; in addition to training them for the jobs under his direction. Discontentment must be interpreted in terms of its latent causes to prevent boisterous expression. The foreman has to care for the controls, and "paper work" required by government or the company; solicit suggestion or devise means for improving quality and quantity of work and the condition of the work place; help replace those who resign; and be alert for new channels of service for the company products. The foreman's success depends on other factors in addition to job knowledge and job efficiency. There are three tools which can be of value in selecting those who are qualified for supervisory responsibilities: (1) a general intelligence test in which desirable attainment levels will vary with different types of supervisory responsibility as determined by reliable cross sections of present foremen; (2) a personality test in which indices are checked against behavior and the rating of superiors; and (3) an interview that is directed toward eliciting those qualities that are essential in the supervisory relationship and that cannot be appraised by existing personality tests and rating forms.—Earl C. Shedd.

74. Jackey, David E. Supervision (No. 2—Training). *Personnel Journal*. 20 (10) April, 1942: 357-362. The present cry for more and better leaders is due to several factors including industry's failure

to accept its responsibility for training. Industry has regarded training as expensive, adding to the cost of the product. Not enough study has been conducted to show that whether or not training exists, other production costs are hidden somewhere. The forward looking industry will adopt an organized plan for the selection and training of supervisors. A plan for detecting good supervisory material in every department is imperative to insure an opportunity for individuals to show the required characteristics. Characteristics of a good supervisor include: health, knowledge, training, and experience in the work he is supervising, initiative, prompt decision, progressiveness, temperate aggressiveness, a mind capable of organizing work in logical and efficient manner, and good judgment of human nature. Management must approve of the training program by action as well as by word. Introductory training is probably best handled through a formal program conducted informally and might include: (1) foremanship and what it is, using organization charts; (2) foreman-management relations; (3) foreman-worker relations; and (4) leadership and self-improvement. The second phase of the program, growth on the job, is best conducted either by outside specialists or by specially trained key men in the plant. The training programs should include: proper methods of presenting management policies to the workers; proper presentation of the worker's problems to management; methods of obtaining decisions from management; and correspondence, reports, and communications. Training in "foreman-worker relations" should include: instruction in company policies, company problems, dealing with human nature, transfers, training, retraining, hiring, firing, government labor laws and regulations, and delegation of responsibilities. Methods of handling classifications, adjustments of personality conflicts, worker deficiencies, discipline, selection; and rating should also be considered.—*Earl C. Shedd.*

75. Byer, Herman B. **Geographic distribution of federal civilian employees, 1936-1941.** *Monthly Labor Review.* 54 (4) April, 1942: 919-926.—For each of the 183,908 employees in the executive branch of the federal government in Washington in June, 1941, there were more than 6 stationed elsewhere in the United States, its territories and possessions, and foreign countries. The total of 1,358,150 civilian employees in June, 1941 was approximately 67 per cent higher than the total in December, 1936, but the expansion over this period resulted in little change in the 6:1 ratio of workers outside and inside the District of Columbia. Largely as a result of the national defense program, federal civilian employment increased 46 per cent between December 1939 and June 1941. New York led all other states in the number of federal employees in June 1941 with a

total of 118,736, or about two-thirds as many as in Washington, D. C. For every 1,000 persons living in New York there were 9 federal civilian employees. In the other states the proportions ranged from 3 in West Virginia to 32 in Nevada. In the District of Columbia, 277 out of every 1,000 persons were employed by the federal government and in the Panama Canal Zone the ratio was 762 per 1,000. About 73 per cent of all civilian employees in the executive branch of the federal government in June 1941 were in the classified service; in the states the percentage ranged from 31 in Tennessee to 91 in Maine. Three out of every five civilian employees were men; even in the District of Columbia, where there was the highest proportion of women, three of every five federal employees were men.—*Charles H. Bentley.*

PERSONNEL AGENCY MANAGEMENT

76. Farquhar, Henry H. **The anomaly of functional authority at the top.** *Advanced Management.* 7 (2) April-June, 1942: 51-54, 83.—The vesting of authority in specialists along functional lines was a splendid organizational technique and has proven effective in the case of "functional foremen" responsible only for the actual processing phases of manufacturing. From the top level of organization it became necessary long ago to split up the work of the chief executive into broad operating or action functions with a manager in charge of each. The problem was presented by the specialized services. The military established these special functions in *staff advisors* (advisors on personnel, intelligence, training, supply, planning) or *service units* (chemical warfare, finance, medical care, manufacture, etc.), preserving the unity of command. Other administrators set up various specialists with authority to issue orders to all line or operating men. The latter solution violates the principles of the unity of command, makes it impossible to fix individual responsibility, lowers morale, hinders policy formation and vigorous execution. This introduction of functional authority at the top makes the role of the administrator more rather than less difficult. It is a perversion of sound principles of organization as developed for a specific purpose, to a use for which they were not intended, for which they are not adapted, in a way in which their originator never practiced and would have condemned.—*Charles F. Parker, Jr.*

77. McPherson, J. C. **Mathematical operations with punched cards.** *Journal of the American Statistical Association.* 37 (218) June, 1942: 275-281.—In the past fifty years there has been a significant change in the extent and complexity of computations necessary to apply mathematical formulae to concrete situations. In the higher branches of mathematics

which have been called into use, the mathematical expressions are often simple, but the actual labor of carrying out the computations indicated can require weeks of work. Punched-card tabulating machines, because they require no further manual work than the original entry of the problem on punched-cards which actuate automatic machines, form the most powerful, yet little used, tool yet devised for the performance of mathematical computations. The usefulness of electrical punched-card accounting machines in handling statistical and accounting procedures has led to the development of a series of machines, each designed to perform a specific function and record its results in a form for further automatic machine handling. These machines read a line at a time and with automatic reading of the cards goes a high speed of computing and handling of individual problems. There are some six punched-card machines of demonstrated value in handling mathematical work. The automatic multiplier is perhaps the most useful for computing work. Its operation is completely automatic, and on such work as eight by eight multiplications its speed is 750 multiplications per hour. On smaller problems, speeds up to 1500 per hour can be obtained. The reproducer can transfer all or part of the punched information on one set of cards to another set of cards at a rate of 100 cards per minute. It is useful in making copies of tables or parts of tables and for combining intermediate results onto a single card for further processing. The automatic sorting machine, operating at a rate of 400 cards per minute, can rearrange a set of cards into another sequence or bring together all cards with a similar punched designation. The collator can interleave two separate files of cards, select cards from one file which match cards in another file, or select from a file all cards falling between specified limits. The electric accounting machine is a giant printing-adding machine which is actuated by the passage of cards through it at speeds as high as 150 cards per minute. It can be used to perform a variety of operations, including adding to a capacity of 80 digits, subtracting, or eliminating amounts punched in one or several fields of the cards. The adding wheels may be grouped at will and several factors may be added simultaneously. Interpreters are available for printing on the cards the information punched. Among the important uses of some or all of these machines are: (1) the construction of tables, including those to be used in converting raw scores; (2) various operations in connection with the synthesis and analysis of harmonic functions; (3) progressive digitizing such as in the computation of multiple correlations; and (4) the evaluation of determinants. In addition to the direct use of these basic principles there is a wide variety of problems which can be solved by combinations or repeated appli-

cation of the basic punched card steps. These include the preparation of scatter diagrams, and factor analysis.—*Kenneth E. Dougan.*

78. Koran, Sidney W. *Machines in civil service testing. Educational and Psychological Measurement.* 2 (2) April, 1942: 167-200.—The increased examining task of civil service agencies in recent years has expedited the use of machines in scoring tests. The most widely used of these devices, the IBM test scoring machine, uses an electric current passing through correctly placed pencil marks to register the candidates' scores directly on a meter. Objective examinations may be arranged to save time and scoring costs by this method. Generally a separate answer sheet is required, except where tests are short enough to be printed on special answer sheets. Pencils with high graphite content lead must be used. Unfamiliarity with the use of the answer sheet can be reduced as a source of incidental error by adequate instructions placed near sections to which they apply. Both true-false and multiple-choice type items may be used in the same test, though it is best to keep each type separate. Sub-tests of multiples of 30 items falling within one or more fields on the scoring machine may be scored separately to permit differential weighting. Examples are given of several types of tests arranged for machine scoring. This scoring method is extremely accurate when all precautions are taken, though usually some papers must be checked manually. Other uses of the machine include the scoring of graphic rating scales and service ratings, the computation of item analyses, reliability coefficients, intercorrelations and similar operations in research projects which would not be economical to do manually. (Formulae for the machine computation of test reliabilities and similar data are included in the article.)—*John A. Ohlson.*

79. Unsigned. *Research and planning in management. Public Management.* 24 (5) May, 1942: 138-142.—City managers know that in the many decisions they make daily, the better they understand a problem, the more likely they are to make a sound decision. In order, however, to leave time for planning and formulating policy, they must rely on others for research. Research, then, is basic to planning, and planning is basic to administration and management. The kind of research needed by the manager is determined by the problems he faces, and the decisions he must make. Since his job is to formulate policy, and that of his council to determine policy, each must have sources of information on which to base decisions. The primary source of information for the council is the manager, who may supplement and reinterpret information in the hands of the council from outside sources. Research, however, does not end with the determina-

tion of legislative policies. The manager and his department heads must still formulate and determine administrative policy. This consists of filling in the details of council policy and adjusting existing administrative policy to changed conditions. In smaller cities this research may have to be done by the regular operating personnel. In a medium sized city a more formal research organization may be established, and in the larger cities research units may be established in operating departments in addition to the administrative research agency which may be located perhaps in the budget bureau as an aid to the chief administrator. Such administrative research must be done by persons who also understand the functions and tasks of the operating departments. Whatever the local situation may be, certain general observations may be made about the organization of research. The manager should wherever possible delegate research to subordinates. The manager should see that operating agencies understand the importance of research, undertake inquiries on their own initiative, and keep abreast of research and technical developments in their fields. Full use should also be made of all sources outside the city government such as universities, other governmental agencies and civic, professional or industrial groups. Minimum organization for research requires that someone be responsible for knowing where to turn for information. This may be the administrative assistant or the central planning agency. The manager should also have available sources of information on the major fields in which managerial or broad problems arise. A survey of agencies and the type of assistance they render will aid in accomplishing this. Public libraries, and professional and technical organizations can be called upon to supply the manager and department heads with information. The need for research in government arises from the inescapable fact that decisions have to be made. The wisest choice is more likely to be made if the situation in which the decision is to be made is thoroughly understood, and if the probable results of the various possible decisions are clearly and fearlessly faced. This can be done without an elaborately organized research agency, although the gathering of pertinent information and its analysis as a basis for planning and action can be better facilitated through organized effort. More important, however, is the presence of an inquiring attitude common to the whole administration.—*John H. Huss.*

80. Eves, Edward Victor. **The organization of manpower.** *Public Administration* (England). XX (1) January to June, 1942: 19-27.—This is essentially a war of machines. The armed forces need huge quantities of equipment which require much more skilled and highly trained labor to make, maintain, and manipulate, than was the case in the last war.

In addition, it is necessary to have large civilian defense services, which constitute a problem not present in the last war. The proper organization of manpower is, therefore, of the utmost importance. To enable the supply of manpower to meet the demand, the highest degree of organization is essential, for the skill of every man and woman, whether in the armed forces or in industry, must be used so that it makes the maximum contribution to the war effort. In the matter of recruiting for the armed forces, many lessons were learned from the war of 1914-18: (1) the question as to whether conscription or voluntary methods should be used was settled by the Military Training Act of 1931, which introduced compulsory military training for young men of twenty, and when war came it was a simple matter to extend military service by age groups; (2) much less emphasis has been placed upon the calling up of single men first, other measures having been taken to deal with individual cases of hardship; and (3) the men are dealt with by a civil department until they actually join their units. After registration for military service, each man's position in relation to the Schedule of Reserved Occupations is examined. This Schedule is the instrument by which the Minister of Labour and National Service carries out his task of insuring that the nation's manpower and skill is properly distributed between the armed forces, the civilian defense services, and industry, according to their respective needs. The needs of the armed forces for skilled men are great, for the army has 160 service trades, the navy and the air force over 90 each, and most of them require men who are also much needed by industry for the production of munitions. While the Schedule allows a sufficient number of these skilled men to be called up, it only permits them to go into the forces in their service trades, not for "general service" (except in the case of R.A.F. pilots and observers). Although the Schedule can regulate the types and ages of workers who shall go into the forces or stay in industry, it cannot bring back into industry men who have enlisted. Special arrangements with the military authorities are necessary to do this. The Schedule operated until April 1941, and was compiled on a purely occupational basis. The men with valuable skill were retained so that they could be diverted to work of national importance, but as more men were needed in the forces, it became necessary to comb out those engaged in the less important industries and a new Schedule of Reserved Occupations and Protected Establishments was issued. The success of the war effort depends very largely on the organization of the supply of labor so that no man's skill is wasted. As production increases the supply of skilled men will have to be spread still more thinly to man new and extended factories, and this can be done only by

much more dilution, breaking down of processes, up-grading of unskilled and semi-skilled workers, and the training by employers of more labor. If more men are needed for the armed forces and the raising of the age for military service is to be avoided, it is clear that more men must be combed from industries non-essential to the war effort.

—Louis E. Hosch.

81. Bingham, Walter V. **The army personnel classification system.** *The Annals* 220 March, 1942: 19-20. —In a rapidly expanding military force, effective utilization of occupational skills already possessed by citizen soldiers is a first consideration in the personnel classification program which has three objectives: to conserve manpower; to expedite training; and to enhance morale. Unfortunately, military duties seldom duplicate exactly civilian trades, and the occupational supply in some fields fails to meet military necessities, so that it becomes essential in classifying and allocating personnel to take account of many other factors. The assets of the citizen soldier are analyzed: (1) at an Army Induction Station, where he receives a searching physical examination; (2) at a Reception Center where a tentative decision as to his best usefulness is made on the basis of records of his background and experience and his mental ability as measured by the General Classification Test and; (3) at the Replacement Training Center where he learns basic military skills, is given further aptitude tests, and is observed by his supervisors at a variety of duties. During this last period, a certain proportion of men are selected for training as army specialists and others begin to emerge as potential officer training material. The classification officer makes allocations of the recruits who are ready for assignment to tactical units, so as to form a balanced regiment. Thereafter, with the assistance of professional staff provided by the Adjutant General, it becomes the duty of commanders of the regiment's component units to see that enlisted men are properly employed. Only three broad categories of military duty are recognized for officers: line, staff, and a specific specialty. The complete records maintained for each officer of the Reserve Corps, which has supplied the majority of commissioned personnel, are available for area commanders in making their selections. In addition, officers are obtained from officer candidate schools established for each branch of the service. Enlisted men accepted for officer training at the completion of basic training must have demonstrated capacity for leadership. While it is inevitable in the exigencies of war that there will be some individual and even wholesale occupational misplacements, the Army is striving for a practical, expeditious, and efficient system of personnel procurement and placement. Pertinent Army regulations have been revised, an amplified code of occupations published,

studies made of occupational supply and demand, new mental and trade tests devised and validated, and a school established for training officers in classification purposes and procedures.—*Edith Kern Mosher.*

82. Cooper, Richard W. **Position classification in the war program.** *Personnel Administration*. 4 (8) April, 1942 1-10.—Through the personnel office in its Division of Central Administrative Services, the Office for Emergency Management provides personnel services to 15 of the 17 war agencies under its aegis, including among others the Office of Lend-Lease Administration, Office of Civilian Defense, National War Labor Board, Office of Defense Transportation, and War Manpower Commission. The two OEM agencies which have established their own personnel offices are the War Production Board and the Office of Price Administration. Classification of positions of these heterogeneous agencies is difficult because of the unrelated functions, geographical dispersion in Washington, their role of coordination which calls for few intermediate positions, and their rapid growth to 10,000 employees in April, 1942. To provide rapid but effective service, the OEM personnel office has established seven classification units (five headed by classification analysts at the \$3800 level), each of which is housed with the agency or agencies served. Similar physical decentralization has been effected for other personnel services so that a virtually complete branch office under a branch personnel officer now exists in five agencies. Because of the shortage of classification analysts for central and field offices, between April 1941 and April 1942 more than 35 capable young men and women at the \$2000 level were selected and trained. Results of a year's experience in intensive training has shown the desirability of combining actual supervised work experience with reading and lectures over a six week period. Due to the large scale and physical decentralization of operations, internal coordination has been difficult. One means of coordination is a series of staff meetings divided into groups according to the grade of the classification analyst; another is the reduction to writing of all clerical and minor technical personnel procedures. A classification council of all classification unit heads in OEM and the War Production Board was organized in 1941 for discussion of common classification problems. A weekly classification seminar for technical staff members attracts a large voluntary attendance. To speed the work of the decentralized classification units and branch offices, full responsibility is accorded them for preparing, signing, and transmitting to the Civil Service Commission classification sheets for all positions up to and including the \$3800 grades, with only a post-audit conducted by the OEM central classification office. Not quite so

much decentralization is commonly in effect for the ten field offices, where new positions over \$1800 must be approved in Washington; as the field classification analysts gain in experience, greater responsibility will be shifted to them. The following additional devices further speed the classification process: when a new operating division or section is to be established, the newly appointed chief meets with the head of the OEM classification unit for the agency and a representative of the Civil Service Commission at an organization conference where final agreements may be immediately reached as to the class and grade allocations of new positions to be established; final review and signatures of operating officials on classification sheets have been eliminated, relying only on agreement on draft specifications and inspection of a duplicate copy of the final specification sent to the Civil Service Commission; the decentralization of the Civil Service Commission permits the assignment of three representatives in the OEM personnel office who have authority to give immediate final approval to all specifications up to and including CAF-12; duplicating desk audits have been eliminated; the typing load has been reduced by elimination of such unessential typing as classification sheets for new positions identical to ones already approved; a new form for field offices avoids the redescription of a position by a regional classification officer if the employee has furnished a satisfactory description; for new divisions or positions which are not completely formulated, there has been prepared and guardedly used a Master Classification Sheet which contains a very general description of duties and relationships sufficient to enable classification prior to preparation of specifications when the organization or position becomes more definite; and finally, standard approved specifications for common positions have been utilized wherever possible. Much remains to be done in further improvement of procedures, techniques, and attitudes. (This is the first of two articles dealing with various aspects of the subject.)—*Jean Charters Graham.*

RECRUITMENT; SELECTION; INDUCTION

83. Older, H. J. A note on the twenty-minute time limit of the Otis S-A tests when used with superior high school students. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 26 (2) April, 1942: 241-244.—A special feature of the Otis Self-Administering Tests of Mental Ability, Higher Examination form, is the optional use of a flexible time limit. Two groups of superior high school students recently were given both the Otis test and the American Council on Education Psychological Examination, 1938 edition. In administering the Otis test, the first group was tested with a thirty minute limit; the second group with a

twenty minute limit. The twenty minute time limit scores were converted into terms of thirty minute scores. The slight tendency of the second group to exceed the first group on the A. C. E. examination was found to have no statistical significance. However, the second group showed a tendency to exceed the first group on the Otis which was statistically highly significant. Tables containing details of the results are printed in support of these findings. It was concluded from these results that use of a twenty minute time limit is not justified, at least for the age range tested, even for survey purposes if the scores are to be compared with thirty minute scores made by any other group of subjects. However since the twenty minute limit test does place subjects in the same relative rank as the A. C. E. examination it has applicability for such research purposes as the determination of the relative ability of two similarly tested groups.—*Harry H. Fite.*

84. Thorndike, Robert L. Two screening tests of verbal intelligence. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 26 (2) April, 1942: 128-135.—In preparation for a survey of the American voting public by the American Institute of Public Opinion a short intelligence test was developed. For such a purpose (a test covering no more than ten minutes was the goal), a test comprising only one type of testing material seemed most suitable. Since it is recognized as one of the best forms and peculiarly suited for the adult groups to be tested, a vocabulary test was selected. Multiple-choice items from the I. E. R. Intelligence Scale CAVD and other vocabulary items from the vocabulary test of Form L of the Revised Stanford Binet were assembled and standardized. Two twenty-word test forms were developed from the I. E. R. material and standardized by administering them along with a standardized intelligence test to school and college groups. The words used in the tests, the groups tested, and the tests that were employed are described. Mental age equivalents for vocabulary scores were computed by two methods. The average of the values obtained by the two methods were used in the final tables of mental age equivalents which was prepared. These tables are reproduced. In brief the two methods employed in standardization were as follows: (1) For each school grade group tested the percentile corresponding to each vocabulary score was found and the mental age corresponding to this percentile was determined. (2) After average M. A. and vocabulary scores were computed for each group and plotted on graph paper, a curve giving the mental age corresponding to vocabulary scores was fitted by eye. The Stanford Binet material was not used it so happened, in the survey described. However, Dr. Thorndike describes how several short form vocabulary tests were developed from this material and standardized.—*Harry H. Fite.*

85. Deming, W. Edwards. *On a classification of the problems of statistical inference.* *Journal of the American Statistical Association.* 37 (218) June, 1942: 173-185.—Scientific data are not taken for museum purposes; the ultimate purpose is to provide a basis for action or recommendation for action. The step between the collection of data and the action is prediction. The scientific attitude is to base the action on rational predictions and the degree of belief associated with the prediction as well as on the possible consequences of different courses of action. Any method of inference which does not help to predict or does not affect the degree of belief in the prediction is irrelevant. It may be useful to distinguish between two types of problems that confront the statistician in his job of making predictions. Type A is the problem in which action is based on a prediction regarding future measurement of a product already in existence. For instance, in the inspection of an industrial product a sampling is taken of a particular lot, the disposition of that lot being to accept, reject, regrade, sort, or repair on the basis of the study. Type B is the problem in which action is based on a prediction regarding something not yet subject to measurement. For instance, an inspection may be made of the same lot of industrial products referred to in the example of type A, but the purpose is to forestall an undesirable percentage of rejections in the future or to point the way to improvements in future quality. Statistical problems in social and economic studies may also be classified as type A or type B. Knowledge of the subject matter of the study is essential in both the type A problem and the type B problem. For instance, the statistician must recognize the fact that in type A problems the sampling and measuring may introduce biases. It will not do to issue one statement or prediction as a statistician and some other statement as an economist, sociologist, agriculture expert, engineer, or some other specialist. Knowledge of the subject matter and of the limitations of measurement are necessary in the interpretation of results. The same necessity for a knowledge of the subject matter applies when the study is carried out as a type B problem. In addition to data obtained from type A surveys, evidence for the solution of a type B problem may come from studies of the underlying process from the standpoint of sociology, economics, or whatever may be involved, all of which requires a considerable knowledge of the subject matter but may replace a vast amount of experimental data of type A. Recognition of the two types of problems and methods is necessary in the planning of any survey or experiment. The classification will affect the design of the survey, the funds needed, the amount of detail necessary and tabulation, the areas of tabulation, the advisability of sampling and its kind, size, and distribution. —Kenneth E. Dougan.

TRAINING

86. Unsigned. *Training as a management function.* *Public Management.* 24 (6) June, 1942: 168-73.—A city manager is both directly, and indirectly responsible for employee training. He is directly responsible for training department heads and administrative assistants. While training responsibility can be delegated by the manager, he must sell the need of a training program himself, assign training responsibilities among his subordinates, formulate or review the policies of the administration with respect to training, and review and appraise the training activities of the various departments and agencies. Training activities may be broadly classified as "inside" and "outside" training, depending upon whether training is performed by city officials or agencies, or by outside agencies. Choosing from among these agencies is a function of the city manager. The method of administering training courses also serves to indicate training policies. The determination of whether training should be made optional or compulsory with the employee is moot. Generally speaking, however, it is held unwise to make any training compulsory which requires employee time or money expenditure. Compulsion also provides a poor atmosphere for training. Positive employee attitudes toward training have been created by better promotional opportunities for those engaging in training courses. Also, certificates and public notice are given to employees successfully completing training courses. The costs of training also raise complex problems. A city must be willing to bear some of the cost if employees are to become actively interested. Otherwise interest depreciates, and employee participation is lacking. Leaves of absence are given employees for training, but in most cases for only a short time. Most training courses are held the latter part of the business day, or in the evening. Admittance to training courses is granted to as many qualified employees as possible to avoid charges of favoritism, and to discover as much promotional material as possible. Conclusions and recommendations resulting from this survey show the following: (1) the need for more attention to training of administrative and supervisory personnel; (2) the great scarcity of competent instructors; (3) too little attention given to employee participation in planning and administering a training program, and (4) responsibility for training should be more clearly defined.—William W. Shaw.

87. Vietheer, George C. *Apprenticeship-learner-ship program of the Panama Canal and Railroad Company.* *Personnel Administration.* 4 (9) May, 1942: 9-12.—The isolation of the Canal Zone has always made the recruitment of skilled American workers a serious problem, even in normal times. Similarly the employment opportunities of unskilled local residents were sharply limited, since private industry

is prohibited and the government of the Panama Canal is the only employer. To offset these conditions in part, and thereby serve the interests both of the government and the Canal Zone community, an apprenticeship and learnership program gradually evolved. Operation of the present system is the responsibility of the division of personnel supervision and management of the Panama Canal and the Panama Railroad Company, working in close cooperation with department and division heads. There is also a continuing committee known as the Apprentice-Learner Committee, appointed by the Governor of the Panama Canal, which serves actively in an advisory capacity. Appointments of apprentices and learners are made from registers of eligibles which are established from applicants who meet age limits and minimum educational requirements. Before appointment, the applicants selected are required to sign a written agreement to complete the full training period and to endeavor to give service satisfactory in all respects. There are apprenticeships in the mechanical crafts and learnerships in the other occupations. The term of apprenticeship or learnership is ordinarily four years, and consists of training both in the shop and in the apprentice school. In addition, there are clerical learnerships and a few courses of student training for which college graduation is required; for these the terms are somewhat shorter. Apprentices or learners are required to work the minimum number of hours daily prescribed for their crafts or occupations except that these hours include time spent in prescribed classes of instruction. Periodic efficiency ratings are given which include examinations for both the practical and academic phases of training. Promotions from one class to another are not automatic, but depend upon recommendations of the division heads. Upon satisfactory completion of an apprenticeship or learnership course, the temporary employment therein is terminated. Whenever vacancies exist the graduates may be employed immediately; otherwise their names are placed upon eligible lists for consideration as vacancies develop.

—William A. Grelle.

88. Brown, Gerald. Where can we get executives? *Personnel Journal*. 21 (2) June, 1942: 47-53.—The sellers' market on labor in defense areas has made it difficult for personnel managers in "non-vital" businesses to secure executive replacement from the labor market. One approach is to transfer promising material from other departments. Of necessity, this must be accompanied by an intensive training period. Such an approach leads to the favorable policy of promotion from within, based upon an aggressive, long-term in-service training program. In such a program, each departmental supervisor plays the important role of developing his subordinates in order that they may be in position to assume

greater responsibility in periods of rapid adjustment. The central training bureau continues its function of induction training and serves as adviser, coordinator, and clearinghouse for training activities. A promotional file may be used to keep up-to-date information on the availability of qualified executive or supervisory replacements. In such a file every executive or supervisory position is indexed, together with data on the development of possible replacements. Thus, every position can be analysed and training can be directed properly whenever inadequate protection on any one position is discovered. An excellent medium through which the training and developing program can work is the line type of organization where each employee has only one supervisor. In this type of organization, hidden executive talents often can be discovered. Sometimes a technique such as an "ambition blank" is of assistance in uncovering prospective executive material. The "ambition blank" gives the employee an opportunity to evaluate his job in terms of his own satisfaction and to indicate his ambitions if he feels he could be better placed. Channelizing training through line supervisors rather than by a central agency means that the former also must be trained in the essentials of good leadership. Problem cases based upon situations resulting from war-time restrictions may be developed and presented before leadership training groups. After each supervisor has developed his solution to the problems, discussion groups are held in which line executives are given an opportunity to discuss their solutions to the cases in terms of the principles of good leadership. The central personnel agency serves as moderator during these discussions. In any case, the starting point in the application of new techniques of attack on war time personnel problems is the proper organization of personnel to provide the mechanism for coordinated activity. The personnel organization must be flexible to change and growth and above all must be recognized as a tool of management and not an end in itself.—Raymond Kahn.

89. Rommel, Rowena Bellows. The making of administrators. *Public Administration Review*. II (2) Spring, 1942: 113-15.—The Committee on Administrative Personnel recently formed in the United States Civil Service Commission has the responsibility for finding competent personnel for the higher administrative jobs in war agencies. The necessity for creating this committee focuses attention on the general lack, in the federal government, of all-round, well-trained administrators. Among the reasons advanced for this situation are: past emphasis on specialized civil service examinations geared to supply experienced technicians and subsequent promotion of such technicians to administrative posts; and failure to train properly and to

develop the potential administrative talent entering the federal service through more general examinations of which the two Junior Civil Service Examiner tests of 1934 and 1936 were the first. Unfortunately, virtually all of the potential administrators recruited through generalized examinations now find themselves well grooved in some special field, probably in personnel techniques and procedures or in some substantive research field rather than in administration. These employees became valuable in their specialized fields and developed into technicians through a combination of agency pressure for getting a specific job done and personal desire to advance rapidly. They are not in a position to see a problem first and last with all its parts related to the major considerations at stake. Successful administrators must have certain attributes, including: sensitivity and understanding of people, common sense, and judgment. In addition they must possess ability, suitable personal characteristics

and honest-to-goodness liking for administrative work. On the training side, it seems apparent that certain present policies are not showing an appreciable degree of success. Among these are: teaching abstract principles of administration to a trainee for an administrative post; burying him in numerous, ever-present federal procedures; side tracking him in an operating job of a segment of a large program; steeping him in subject-matter research; leaving him too long in apex generalities without real contact with operating problems; or offering him only the vicarious administrative experience of administrative analysis. Significant improvement is vitally needed in the developmental program for government administrators. It must come about through conscious planning and action by top operating and administrative officials, not through boot-pulling exertions by individual employees or occasional flying tackles by training experts.—Robert I. Biren.

END OF VOLUME 3

The October (No. 4) issue of PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW concludes Volume 3 of the publication, covering the calendar year 1942. An index to this volume will be issued separately and will be sent to all subscribers with the next issue of the magazine.

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Public Personnel Review Index

VOLUME 3—1942

THE following index contains authors, titles, and subject matter references arranged in one alphabet. The full title of each principal article appears in italics under the author's name, and supplementary citations appear under appropriate subject headings. Abstracts of articles (A), book reviews (BR), and court decisions (CD) appear under the principal subjects to which they pertain, and are identified by the foregoing parenthetical code designations. In addition, all book reviews are arranged alphabetically by author under the heading "Book Reviews."

Cross references to related subject matter headings are indicated by "See also." In cases where various citations have been placed under one general head, as in "Age Limits, *see* Qualifications," the reader will find all citations under the latter heading.

The numerals at the end of each entry signify the page on which that entry appears. Page numbers of the four issues in Volume 3 are as follows:

VOLUME 3—1942

Issue	Month	Pages
No. 1	January	1-80
No. 2	April	81-176
No. 3	July	177-258
No. 4	October	259-344

A

ABOLITION OF POSITIONS

- Effect of veteran status on, (CD) 57
- Legality of, (CD) 153
- Reinstatement rights after, (CD) 152

ABSTRACTS OF ARTICLES, 68-79, 165-76, 248-58, 336-44
See also under subject

ADAMS, C. R., AND SMELTZER, C. H.

- Placing new examinees on open eligible registers,* 133-37

ADMINISTRATIVE PERSONNEL

- Conference plan of training, 138-44
- In Great Britain, (BR) 243
- Procedures for, (BR) 160
- Selection of, (A) 74; (A) 172
- Value of codes and manuals for, (A) 166

ADMINISTRATIVE RELATIONS

- Central and departmental personnel offices, (A) 69
- Central services with line departments, (BR) 161
- Influence of civil service on line executives, 101
- Mayor may request suspension of agency staff member, (CD) 58

ADMINISTRATIVE RELATIONS—continued

- Personnel agencies in pay matters, 272-79
- Selling service ratings to operating departments, (A) 75

AGE LIMITS, *see* Qualifications

APPLICATION

- Procedure in Rhode Island, 296

APPLEY, LAWRENCE A.

- Organizing for personnel administration,* 100-06

APPOINTMENTS

- Emergency: validity of, (CD) 55
- Fraud as grounds for revoking, (CD) 237
- Invalid following illegal certification, (CD) 239
- Not a function of civil service agency, (CD) 150
- Preference applies to appointment not examination, (CD) 56
- Removal after, (CD) 153
- Right to compel proper, (CD) 237
- Temporary: do not give permanent status, (CD) 151

B

BACKGROUND EVALUATION

- Credit for illegal appointment invalid, (CD) 324
- Desirable instead of minimum qualifications, 12; 26
- Industrial hygienists, (A) 75
- Open eligible registers, 130
- Progress in methods of, 13
- See also* Qualifications

BARUCH, ISMAR

- Surveying prevailing salary rates,* 86-99

BLAND, CHARLES H.

- Two years of wartime personnel administration in Canada,* 81-85

BOOK REVIEWS

- Baker, Helen. *Women in war industries,* 335
- Baker, Helen, and Brown, J. Douglas. *Optimum hours of work in war production,* 247
- Balderston, C. Canby, Anderson, H. W., and Van Del-den, E. H. *Wage adjustment and grievance policies,* 247
- Benson, George C. S. *The new centralization,* 156
- Bergan, Harold B., Evans, J. J. Jr., and Marple, Howard A. *Interchanging ideas between management and employees,* 67
- Biddle, Eric H. *The mobilization of the home front,* 157
- Bingham, Walter Van Dyke, and Moore, Bruce Victor. *How to interview,* 66
- Civil Service Assembly. *Position-classification in the public service,* 61
- Civil Service Assembly. *Employee Relations in the Public Service,* 158
- Cooper, Alfred M. *Employee training,* 245
- Dale, H. E. *The higher civil service of Great Britain,* 243

BOOK REVIEWS—continued

- David, Paul T. *Barriers to youth employment*, 334
- Dickinson, Z. Clark. *Collective wage determination*, 65
- Furia, John J. *Training municipal employees*, 246
- Gilson, Mary Barnett. *What's past is prologue*, 333
- Glaser, Comstock. *Administrative procedure*, 160
- Greene, Edward B. *Measurements of human behavior*, 62
- Hayes, Laurence J. W. *The Negro federal government worker*, 247
- International Labour Office. *Labour supply and national defence*, 63
- Kaplan, A. D. H., ed. *Explorations in citizenship*, 66
- Leonard, J. M., and Mohaupt, Rosina. *Cost-of-living salary plans for municipal employees*, 334
- National Municipal League. *Model city charter*, 162
- Nyswander, Rachel Fesler. *Employment of women in the federal government, 1923-1939*, 335
- Oldfield, R. C. *The psychology of the interview*, 245
- Pacific Northwest Personnel Management Association. *Proceedings: Third annual conference*, 247
- Reed, Thomas Harrison. *Municipal management*, 159
- Rhyne, Charles S. *Power of municipalities to enter into labor union contracts—a survey of law and experience*, 64
- Schaefer, Vernon G. *Safety supervision*, 331
- Schultz, Theodore W., and Witt, Lawrence W. *Training and recruiting of personnel in the rural social studies*, 164
- Scott, Walter Dill, Clothier, Robert C., Mathewson, Stanley B., and Spriegel, William R. *Personnel management*, 66
- Todd, J. Edward. *Social norms and the behavior of college students*, 67
- United States Civil Service Commission. *History of the federal civil service*, 161
- United States Department of Labor. *Discussion of industrial accidents and diseases*, 246
- University of Michigan, Bureau of Industrial Relations. *Addresses on industrial relations*, 67
- Walton, Albert. *The fundamentals of industrial psychology*, 332
- White, Leonard D., ed. *The future of government in the United States*, 330
- Zink, Harold. *Government and politics in the United States*, 334

BRATTIN, BARBARA L.
Exhibits as a medium for public reporting and positive recruiting, 120-24

BRITT, STEUART HENDERSON
The committee on wartime requirements for specialized personnel, 107-11

C

CALIFORNIA
Selection of typists and stenographers, 205-09

CERTIFICATION

- "Advisory" lists, not legal for, (CD) 325
- Discretion in use of appropriate lists, (CD) 236
- Fraud as grounds for revoking, (CD) 237
- Multiple certification held valid, (CD) 54
- Procedures necessary with open eligible registers, 131
- Speed-up for clerical employees, 209
- To lower grade position with the same duties, (CD) 150
- To lower grade positions, (CD) 325
- See also Appointment

CHICAGO PARK DISTRICT
Safety program of, 210-17

CITIZENSHIP

The citizen's place in government, (A) 165

CIVIL SERVICE

Germany, before and after Hitler, (A) 250-51

Investigations of, (CD) 233

Reform, 288-92

Values of, (A) 166

CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY

Annual meeting (1941), 40-52: List of registrants, 48-52; Report of the secretary, 44-47

Panel discussion: of personnel administration in national emergency, 1-6

CIVIL SERVICE LAW

Conflict: administrative rules with law, (CD) 53; home rule and state law, (CD) 146; rule under state law and local law, (CD) 55; state and local law, (CD) 146; (CD) 53; statutes, (CD) 147

Constitutionality: Louisiana, (CD) 145; state merit systems under federal social security act, (CD) 232

Model city charter, (BR) 162

See also Legal adjudication

CLASSIFICATION

Abstract sections, 71, 168, 252

Army, (A) 340

Based on duties, (CD) 324

Jurisdictional: status of incumbents of positions transferred to competitive class, (CD) 56

Need for periodic resurvey, 20

Office of Emergency Management, (A) 340

"Positive classification," 3

Public service, (BR) 61

Relation to pay surveys, 91-92

Specifications: desirable instead of minimum qualifications, 12; elimination of minimum qualifications from, 25-28

CLERICAL WORKERS

Ability testing program, (A) 253

Methods in the selection of, 205-09

Recruitment of stenographers and typists, 83

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING, see Employee relations

COLLETT, MERRILL J.

The presentation of wage proposals for legislative review, 272-79

COMPENSATION, see Pay

COURT DECISIONS, 53-60, 145-55, 232-42, 324-29

See also under subject

D

DEPARTMENTAL PERSONNEL OFFICERS

In public welfare, (A) 68; (A) 69

DETROIT

Use of open eligible registers in, 125-32

DISCHARGES, see Separations; Hearings

DISCRIMINATION

Negro workers in the federal government, (BR) 247

DOMINICK, WILLIAM B.

Orientation programs for new employees, 280-87

DREESE, MITCHELL

Guiding principles in the development of an employee counseling program, 200-04

DRUMMOND, HELEN C.

The wartime program of the National Civil Service Reform League, 288-92

E

ELIGIBLE LISTS

- Advisory or informal: not to be used for competitive positions, (CD) 325
- Combining, 133-37
- Expirations: not affected by pending court action, (CD) 55
- Open: placing examinees on registers, 133-37; use of, 125-32
- Preferred: only for appropriate positions, (CD) 324
- See also Certification

EMPLOYEE COUNSELING

- Guiding principles, 200-04
- Social Security Board program, (A) 258

EMPLOYEE RELATIONS

- Abstract sections, 77, 174, 257
- Collective bargaining: in cities, (A) 176; in the civil service, (A) 257; power of cities to make agreements, (BR) 65; seniority in union agreements, (A) 77; wages in, (BR) 65
- During wartime, (A) 77
- Essentials of, (A) 77
- Grievance policies, (BR) 247
- In: private industry, (BR) 67; public service, (BR) 158
- Interchange of ideas between employees and management, (BR) 67
- Safety programs, 213
- Securing employee support of civil service, 123
- Strikes: right of public employees to, (A) 174; (A) 175; (A) 175

EMPLOYMENT STABILIZATION

- For highway employees, 177-89

EVANSTON, ILLINOIS

- Survey of public opinion on civil service, (A) 70

EVERETT, R. P., see Mohrhardt, Frances J.

EXAMINATIONS

- Analysis of junior professional assistant examination, (A) 253
- Announcements: must abide by, (CD) 235
- Content: judicial inquiry into, (CD) 236
- Grading: correction of errors, (CD) 54; fraud in, (CD) 236
- Machine methods in, (A) 338
- Marginally punched cards in, 293-98
- Open eligible registers: procedures with, 128; problems in use of, 136
- Promotional: validity of elimination tests, (CD) 56
- Time-saving methods, 205-09
- Unassembled: decline in the use of, 14; weaknesses of, 14
- Wartime, 82
- See also Background evaluation; Selection; Tests

EXPERIENCE RATING, see Background evaluation; Qualifications

F

FORMS, see Records

G

GANT, GEORGE F.

- Public personnel administration in the national emergency*, 1-6

GANT, GEORGE F., and HART, HENRY C.

- The TVA program for developing personnel staff replacements*, 265-71

GERMANY

- Civil service before and after Hitler, (A) 250

GREAT BRITAIN

- Higher civil service, (BR) 243

H

HART, HENRY C., see Gant, George F.

HART, ROBERT M., see Pennebaker, Kenneth C.

HAWTHORNE, JOSEPH W.

- Progress in methods of personnel selection*, 11-19

HEALTH

- Absenteeism due to illness, (A) 77
- Industrial diseases and accidents, (BR) 246
- Medical care in industry, (A) 174
- See also Safety

HEARINGS

- Request for postponement, (CD) 241
- Resignation as waiver of right to, (CD) 240

HIGHWAY DEPARTMENTS

- Guaranteed annual pay and employment stabilization plan, 177-89

HOOVER, BLAINE

- A safety program in the public service pays dividends*, 210-17

I

INCUMBENTS

- "Blanketing-in" held constitutional in Louisiana, (CD) 146
- Of positions reassigned to competitive class, (CD) 56

INDUCTION

- Abstract sections, 73, 169, 253, 341
- Orientation programs, 280-87

INDUSTRIAL HYGIENISTS

- Qualifications of, (A) 75

INDUSTRIAL MANAGEMENT

- A career in, (BR) 333
- Functional authority in, (A) 337
- Utilization of material, equipment, and labor, (A) 336

INTERJURISDICTIONAL COOPERATION

- Recruitment, 2
- Salary surveys, 92
- Trends in, 12

INTERVIEWS, see Tests

J-K

KAPLAN, H. ELIOT, ed.

- Court decisions*, 53, 145, 232, 324

L

LAY-OFFS, see Separations; Reinstatements

LEAVE

- Military: 2; in Canada, 84; rights of employees on, (CD) 327

LEGAL ADJUDICATION

- Administrative remedies must precede court action, (CD) 327
- Definition of state service, (CD) 56
- Power of commission to suspend rules, (CD) 155
- Scope of classified service, (CD) 148
- Taxpayer may not sue to prevent illegal appointment, (CD) 150
- See also, Civil service law; and under subject

LEGISLATURES

- Investigation of civil service, (CD) 233
- Presenting pay plans to, 272-79

LEHMAN, W. P.

The management training conference plan, 138-44

LIBRARIES

Civil service extension to, (A) 249

In-service training program for, (A) 256

LOUISIANA

Constitutionality of state civil service law, (CD) 145

M

MACHINE METHODS

Developments in, 17

In civil service testing, (A) 338

Mathematical operations with punched cards, (A) 337

Punch cards for written and coded data, (A) 167

MANAGEMENT, *See* Industrial management; Public administration

MASSACHUSETTS

Constitutionality of merit system plan, (CD) 232

MEDICAL TESTS, *see* Tests

MICHIGAN

Exhibits used by, 120-24

MINNESOTA

Employment stabilization in, 177-89

MOHRHARDT, FRANCES J., and EVERETT, R. P.

Time-saving methods in selecting typists and stenographers, 205-09

MUELLER, RALPH, and WARREN, GEORGE A.

The use of open eligible registers in public personnel selection, 125-32

MURPHY, LIONEL V.

The first federal civil service commission: 1871-1875 (Part I), 29-39; (Part II), 218-31; (Part III), 299-323

N

NATIONAL CIVIL SERVICE REFORM LEAGUE

Wartime program of, 288-92

NEW JERSEY

Training prison officers in, (A) 76

NEW YORK CITY

Essay type tests in, 112-19

Investigation of civil service commission, (CD) 233

Recruitment in, (A) 73

Salary increment law of, (CD) 234

Training employees in, (BR) 246

O

OHIO

Interpretation of constitutional provisions on civil service, (CD) 232

ORAL TESTS, *see* Tests

P

PAY

Abstract sections, 71, 168, 252

Administrative discretion in determining pay grades, (CD) 149

Adjustments: flexibility in, (BR) 247; for city employees, (A) 168; formula for, (A) 72; survey of, (A) 169; trends in, (A) 252; wartime, 4

Canadian policies in wartime, 85

Collective determination, (BR) 65

Cost-of-living: plans for municipal employees, (BR)

334; relation of pay to, (A) 252

Guaranteed annual income, 177-89

Job evaluation in rate setting, (A) 71

PAY—continued

Method of payment: authority to change, (CD) 149

New York City salary increment law, (CD) 234

On reinstatement, (CD) 235

Plan: outline of, 86

Police departments, (A) 72

Policies: determination of, 20-24; relation to price trends, (A) 168

Presenting plans to legislatures, 272-79

Reduction: right to appeal, (CD) 60

Surveying prevailing rates, 86-99

PENNEBAKER, KENNETH C.

Eliminating minimum qualifications from class specifications, 25-28

PENNEBAKER, KENNETH C., and HART, ROBERT M.

Guaranteed annual income and employment stabilization plan for state highway employees, 177-89

PERFORMANCE TESTS, *see* Tests

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

Abstract sections, 68, 165, 248, 336

Basic functions of, 100

Human element in, 104

Industrial: (BR) 66; in the Northwest, (BR) 247; psychology of, (BR) 332; role of the psychologist in, (A) 70

Organizing for, 100-06

Profession of: duties of federal training officers, (A) 256; need for progressive thinking, (A) 251

Research in, 102

Routine operations in, 102

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION IN WARTIME

Adjustments needed in, 104

Army classification program, (A) 340

Canadian experience, 81-85

Committee on Wartime Requirements for Specialized Personnel, 107-11

Deferment from selective service, 2

Federal personnel in defense activities, (A) 165

Labor policy in, (A) 77

Labor supply, (BR) 63

Manpower problems, 262

Mobilization in England, (BR) 157

National Civil Service Reform League program, 288-92

Normalcy impedes, (A) 68

Open eligible registers as an aid in recruitment, 125-32

Panel discussion on, 1-6

Post-war problems, 263

Social security merit systems, (A) 249

PERSONNEL AGENCY MANAGEMENT

Abstract sections, 70, 167, 251, 337

Decentralization in Canada, 84

Internal organization and policy, 7-10

Organization of, 100-06

Overhead organization of, (A) 251

Staff replacements in TVA, 265-71

PHYSICAL TESTS, *see* Tests

PIEZ, DOROTHY E., and WILLEMIN, LOUIS P., JR.

The use of marginally punched cards in the examining process, 293-98

PLACEMENT

Abstract sections, 75, 172, 255

As training in TVA, 270

POLICE

Discretion in determining qualifications, (CD) 234

Salaries and working conditions, (A) 72

POLITICAL ACTIVITY

- Hatch Act, (A) 69
- Political solicitations grounds for removal, (CD) 59
- Protection from does not invalidate discharge for communist affiliation, (CD) 59

POSITION-CLASSIFICATION, *see* Classification

POWELL, NORMAN J.

- Improving the civil service essay test*, 112-19

PROBATIONARY PERIOD

- Authority of board to establish upheld, (CD) 55
- Duration of, (CD) 238
- May not be required, (CD) 152
- Need for use of, 16

PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

- Effect of, on minimum qualifications, 12

PROMOTION

- After open examination has been held, (CD) 238
- Competition may not be evaded by use of preferred list, (CD) 325
- Examinations: eligibility for, (CD) 326
- Program of National Youth Administration, (A) 255

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

- Administrative codes, (A) 166
- Centralization in, (BR) 156
- Conference on government management, (BR) 66
- Direction and control of city manager activities, (A) 167
- Elements of management, 9
- England in wartime, (BR) 157
- Functional authority, (A) 337
- General text on, (BR) 334
- Influence of civil service on, 101
- Methods of, 8
- Municipalities, (BR) 159
- Need for, study of aims, (A) 248
- Normalcy impedes in wartime, (A) 68
- Organization of, 260
- Philosophy of, 259-64
- Procedure in, (BR) 160
- Research and planning in, (A) 338
- Training a function of, (A) 342
- Wartime manpower in England, (A) 339
- See also* Industrial management

PUBLIC RELATIONS

- City manager's role in, (A) 248
- Effect of eliminating minimum qualifications, 26-27
- Exhibits as a medium for reporting, 120-24
- Information men in the federal service, (A) 170
- Of personnel agencies, (A) 70
- Publicity in open eligible registers, 126
- Reporting public affairs, (A) 168

PUBLIC WELFARE

- Departmental personnel officers in, (A) 68
- Merit systems: constitutionality of, (CD) 232; during war, (A) 249
- Personnel functions in, (A) 69

Q

QUALIFICATIONS

- Age limits: relation to success in examinations, (A) 73
- Character: effect of pardon on employment of convicted felons, (CD) 54
- Discretion in determining, (CD) 234
- Medical: employment of physically handicapped, (A) 170; discretion in determining, (CD) 234
- Promotional: discretion in determining, (CD) 326
- Relaxation in wartime, 128
- See also* Background evaluation

R

RECORDS

- Marginally punched cards in examining, 293-98

RECRUITMENT

- Abstract sections, 73, 169, 253, 341
- Committee on Wartime Requirements for Specialized Personnel, 107-11
- Exhibits as a medium for, 120-24
- In New York City, (A) 73
- Of: Executives, (A) 343; personnel in rural social studies, (BR) 164; personnel staff of TVA, 265-71; physically handicapped employees, (A) 170
- Open eligible registers as an aid in, 125
- Quality of civil service applicants, (A) 253
- Wartime: labor supply, (BR) 63; methods, 3; re-vamping procedure, 82

REINING, HENRY, JR., and STROMSEM, KARL E.

- An approach to public service training: government internships*, 190-99

REINSTATEMENT

- After abolition of position, (CD) 152
- After discharge, right of former administrative officer to appeal denied, (CD) 59
- After resignation, seniority does not apply, (CD) 58
- Deductions from back pay, (CD) 327
- Salary at time of, (CD) 235

RESEARCH

- Basic function of personnel administration, 102
- Behavior of college students, (BR) 67
- In the selection of administrators, (A) 74
- Mathematical operations with punched cards, (A) 337
- Place of, in city management, (A) 338
- Relation of age and success in examinations, (A) 73
- See also* Statistics; Tests

RHODE ISLAND

- Marginally punched cards in examining, 293-98

RICHEY, CARL L.

- Determining pay policy*, 20-24

RURAL SOCIAL STUDIES

- Training and recruiting personnel in, (BR) 164

S

SACRAMENTO

- Selection of typists and stenographers, 205-09

SAFETY

- High speed production, (A) 76
- Industrial accidents and diseases, (BR) 246
- Program in Chicago Park District, 210-17
- Supervision, (BR) 331
- See also* Health

SALARY, *see* Pay

SELECTION

- Abstract sections, 73, 169, 253, 341
- Evaluating testing programs, (A) 171
- Methods: of speeding, 5; progress in, 11-19
- Of: administrative personnel, (A) 74; (A) 172; executives, (A) 343; federal administrators, (A) 344; interns for the public service, 190-99; supervisors in industry, (A) 336; TVA personnel staff, 265-71
- See also*, Background evaluation; Examinations; Recruitment; Tests

SENIORITY

- Determination of, (CD) 238
- Does not apply to reinstatement after resignation, (CD) 58

SENIORITY—continued

- Inclusion in promotional examination, (CD) 56
- Provisions for in union agreements, (A) 77

SEPARATIONS

- Discharge: civil service commissioners, (CD) 239; civil service commissioners, (CD) 328; communist affiliations grounds for, (CD) 59; damages after, (CD) 242; during probationary period, (CD) 238; employees in exempt class, (CD) 154; exempted cashiers, (CD) 57; following fraudulent certification and appointment, (CD) 237; following illegal certification, (CD) 239; following invalid appointment, (CD) 153; judicial review of, (CD) 153; political solicitations grounds for, (CD) 59; powers of civil service board in, (CD) 328; sufficiency of detail in reasons, (CD) 240; sufficiency of evidence, (CD) 241; under the Hatch Act, (A) 69; veterans (CD) 239
 - Layoffs: charter procedure must be followed, (CD) 58; determination of seniority in, (CD) 238; for economy, (CD) 327; of exempted employees, (CD) 233
 - Resignation: a waiver of rights to hearing, (CD) 240; fraud in inducing, (CD) 155; seniority does not apply in reinstatement after, (CD) 58
- See also* Reinstatement

SERVICE REPORTS

- Abstract sections, 75, 172, 255
- Factor analysis of, (A) 172
- Plan originated by supervisors, (A) 75
- Progress in the development of, 17
- Selling to operating department, (A) 75

SHORT, OLIVER C.

- Internal management of a central personnel agency, 7-10

SMELTZER, C. H., *see* Adams, C. R.

STASSEN, HAROLD E.

- A projected philosophy of public administration, 259-64

STATISTICS

- Equating scores on alternate test forms, 134
 - Factor analysis of service ratings, (A) 172
 - Operations with punched cards, (A) 337
 - Problems of statistical inference, (A) 342
 - Punch cards for written and coded data, (A) 167
 - Tabulation and interpretation of salary survey data, 97-99
- See also* Research; Tests

STROMSEM, KARL E., *see* Reining, Henry, Jr.

SUPERVISION

- Conference method of, 9

T

TENNESSEE VALLEY AUTHORITY

- Personnel staff replacements, 265-71

TESTS

- Aptitude: two-hand coordination, (A) 255
- Intelligence: time limits on the Otis S-A, (A) 341; verbal intelligence, (A) 341
- Medical: increased use of, 16
- Oral: combining with performance tests, (A) 171; psychology of, (BR) 245; techniques of interviewing, (BR) 66; trends in, 15
- Performance: combining with interview, (A) 171; place in the selection process, (A) 169; progress in, 15; time-saving methods, 205-09
- Physical: increased use of, 16
- Psychological: measurement of behavior, (BR) 62

TESTS—continued

- Research: development and equating of alternate tests, 134; factor analysis, 18; factorial interpretation of difficulty, (A) 169; machines in item analysis, 17; on national clerical ability tests, (A) 253; progress in item analysis and validation, 17; studies of personality, 18; validity of minimum qualifications, 26
 - Scoring: punch card method for presenting profiles, (A) 254-55; weighted vs. unweighted, (A) 254
 - Written: alternate forms with open eligible registers, 130; analysis of Junior Professional Assistant test, (A) 253; improving the essay form, 112-19; for clerical ability, (A) 253; form of, 14
- See also*, Examinations; Selection; Statistics

TRAINING

- Abstract sections, 76, 173, 256, 342
- Apprentice: in the Panama Canal and Railroad Company, (A) 342
- Conference plan, in management training, 138-44
- Defense workers, (A) 173
- Duties of federal training officer, (A) 256
- Executives, (A) 343
- Federal administrators, (A) 344
- Function of management, (A) 342
- Internship: for personnel positions in TVA, 265-71; for public service, 190-99
- In-service: civilian personnel division, United States War Department, (A) 256; in public and private service, (BR) 245; libraries, (A) 256
- Local public servants, (A) 250
- New York City program, (BR) 246
- Orientation: programs for new employees, 280-87
- Personnel in rural social studies, (BR) 164
- Prison officers in New Jersey, (A) 76
- Supervisors in industry, (A) 336

TRAINING RATING, *see* Background evaluation; Qualifications

TRANSFERS

- Interdepartmental placement service in the federal government, (A) 173

U

UNIONS, *see* Employee relations

UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT

- Centralization in, (BR) 156
- Civil Service Commission: history, (BR) 161; history -1871-1875, 29-39, 218-31, 299-323; interdepartmental placement service, (A) 173; management training conference plan, 138-44
- Civilian employees: by type of work, (A) 165; geographic distribution of, (A) 337
- Committee on Wartime Requirements for Specialized Personnel, 107-11
- Defense worker training program, (A) 173
- Future of, (BR) 330
- Hatch Act, (A) 69
- Information men in, (A) 170
- Internships for service in, 190-99
- National Resources Planning Board, 107
- National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel, 107
- National Youth Administration promotion plan, (A) 255
- Negro workers in, (BR) 247
- Office of Emergency Management central administrative services, (A) 340
- Orientation programs in, 280-87
- Social Security Board employee counseling program, (A) 258

UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT—continued

- Social security state merit system plans: constitutionality of, (CD) 232
- War Department, civilian personnel division training program in, (A) 256
- Women employees in, (BR) 335

V

VETERANS' PREFERENCE

- Does not apply to department heads, (CD) 152
- In abolition of positions, (CD) 57
- Removal of veterans, (CD) 239

VOCATIONAL COUNSELING

- Barriers to youth employment, (BR) 335

W-X-Y-Z

WAGES, *see* Pay

WARREN, GEORGE A., *see* Mueller, Ralph

WATER WORKS

- Values of civil service in, (A) 166

WILLEMIN, LOUIS P., JR., *see* Piez, Dorothy E.

WORKING CONDITIONS

- Abstract sections, 76, 174
- Hours: optimum number in war production, (BR) 247
- In police departments, (A) 72
- Medical care in industry, (A) 174
- Outside employment: may not be prohibited, (CD) 326

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